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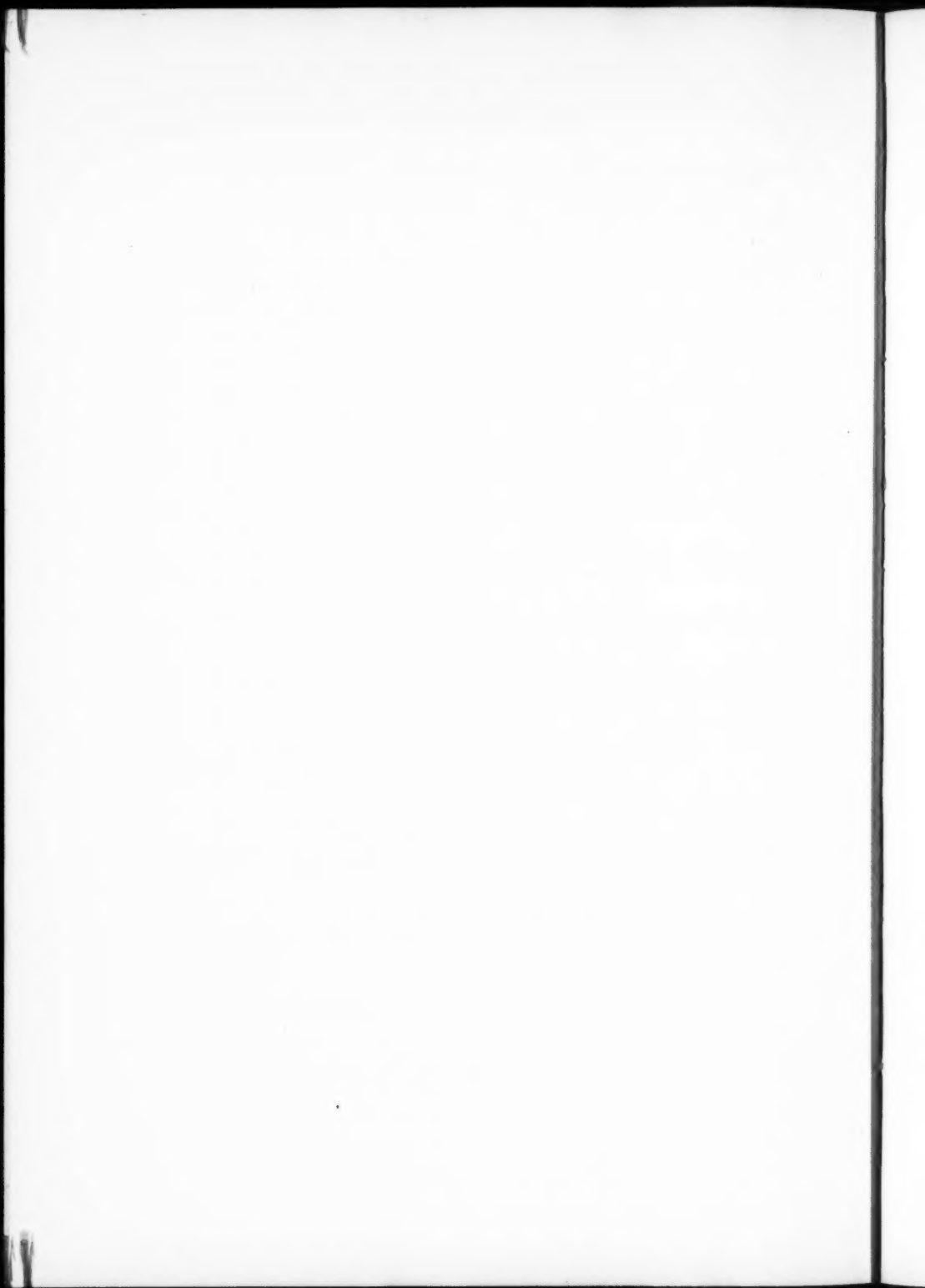
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RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

The *School Review* has aimed to keep its readers in touch with the activities of the National Advisory Committee on Education appointed by President Hoover to consider federal relations to education. However, more than a year has passed since excerpts were made from the *Memorandum of Progress* issued by the committee during the summer of 1930. The final report has recently been published, and it is now possible to present in summary the outcome of all the investigations and deliberations. The report is in two parts, totaling almost six hundred printed pages. The first part, which is the shorter volume, contains the committee findings and recommendations, and the second part contains the basic facts which support the recommendations. The preparation of the second part is credited to David Spence Hill and William Alfred Fisher.

The recommendations of the report are made along two main lines: (1) the general policies and administrative procedures and (2) the governmental organization. We can do no more here than make certain excerpts from these recommendations. The reader desiring fuller information should examine the complete report. Following are portions of the summary on policies and procedures.

This committee is convinced that there are national responsibilities for education which only the federal government can adequately meet. On the basis of this conclusion, the committee recommends the following fundamental policies and administrative procedures with regard to federal relations to political control, financial support, and information service in the field of education.

POLICIES

1. *Political control.*—Political control of the purposes and processes of public education shall remain with the state, territorial, or other regional or local governments.

In its relation to the states and their political subdivisions, the federal government should return to its original practice, well tested throughout the first half of the Republic's life, and recognize that all powers over education are reserved to the states respectively or to the people where constitutionally they belong and where experience indicates they should remain.

In its relations to the outlying possessions, the federal government should delegate as much authority for educational administration and management as it can safely bestow on the regional governments. Generally this has been our national policy, and it should be reaffirmed and continued.

2. *Financial support.*—Any federal financial support for education in the states shall be given only for education in general and not for special phases of education. The amounts and methods of distribution of such federal financial support, if any, shall be determined on the basis of adequate educational and financial studies such as are recommended elsewhere in this report. Such grants shall not be centrally administered by the federal government, but by state, territorial, or other regional governments. . . .

3. *Information service.*—The federal government shall be adequately empowered to render intellectual assistance to education everywhere throughout the American domain, whether conducted as a public or a voluntary enterprise.

The federal government should discover, collect, and diffuse useful information on all aspects of American education and on features of education abroad that are significant to the American people. These services have been rendered by the government for many years, but the function is well performed in only a few fields, scantily performed in others, and completely neglected in still others. The service should be extended and made fully competent. It is only through professional report and counsel, with free decision left to the people of the state or community, that agencies of the federal government acquire legitimate leadership in education.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES

In keeping with the three basic federal policies, the following administrative procedures are recommended:

1. *Autonomy.*—Maintain and develop local autonomy.

States.—In whatever way the federal government attempts to foster education among the states, whether by financial or intellectual assistance, it should

not interfere with the determination by the states of the fundamental social purposes and specific processes involved in actual direction and management of public schools. The people of each state should be free to allocate specific functions between the state and its political subdivisions as local conditions and experience dictate.

Possessions.—In the case of the territories and the outlying possessions, where the federal government has explicit obligations to provide education as it does not have in the case of the states, it should nevertheless delegate authority to provide and manage education, as in other governmental matters, to territorial or other regional governments. . . .

Federal areas.—Even where the federal government has direct responsibility for financial support and actual managerial control of the education of employees and their children on federal areas, and of Indians on reservations, wise organization and administration of education require that discretionary power be lodged with local federal authorities. . . .

2. *Distribution of functions.*—Departmentalize and co-ordinate central management.

Dispersal.—Even where administrative powers over educational matters are to be exercised from the seat of the national government, they should not all be centralized in a single department of the government. A condition of dispersal among departments most competent to exercise these functions is the part of wisdom.

Wherever education is incidental to some other governmental function, as in the case of posts and stations for the national defense, educational control at Washington should be located with the appropriate department and not with the federal headquarters for education.

Again, a particular educational agency such as the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture, through which special scientific or practical assistance is being rendered in the field of education by the federal government, may often be more appropriately attached to a department in which other bureaus and officers are engaged in scientific research or the solution of practical problems closely associated with the special field of education which the federal government is aiming to improve. . . .

Co-ordination.—As correctives of undesirable tendencies resulting from specialization, departmentalization, and localization of authority, the following administrative procedures for co-ordination are recommended:

A. Every department concerned with educational activities should provide itself with a competent and permanent professional educational service.

B. Co-operation and co-ordination of departmental policies and procedures should be insured by requiring representatives of the educational services of the various federal agencies concerned to meet in general interdepartmental conferences for formulation of general policies, and in special interdepartmental conferences to consider more specialized problems.

C. The intellectual assistance in matters of education needed by depart-

ments and by interdepartmental councils or conferences should be supplied by an adequate federal headquarters for education, exclusively concerned with scientific inquiry and the dissemination of knowledge in the field of education.

3. *Limitation of program.*—Emphasize comprehensive research and collection of crucial information.

The number and variety of problems requiring research and of types of information needed in the field of education are infinite and complex. The resources available for these services are limited. If American education is to get maximum value from the expenditures of time and energy, every research and information service must confine its activities to gathering and publishing those types of information that are of critical significance in deciding vital issues. It must also decide whether a particular research or the collection of a particular type of information is an appropriate activity of the federal government or whether both can better be done by other agencies.

Therefore, before gathering extensive data on any subject, a preliminary analysis should be made to determine what issues are vital, what data are essential to intelligent decisions, and whether the needed information may not more appropriately be secured through other channels.

The governmental organization, or "political mechanism," proposed for carrying out the policies and procedures recommended is indicated in the following quotation.

Recommendations.—This committee believes the time has come to ordain and establish a federal headquarters for education that shall be competent to meet the increasing national responsibility for education in ways that are consistent with the policies and procedures recommended in the First Section of this report.

To realize the policies presented in this report, there must be in the government, close to its head co-ordinator, the Chief Executive, a spokesman for the American spirit and method in education, who may on all occasions express that enlightened public opinion upon educational matters which is our surest guide in formulating public policy.

The lack of such an official spokesman for education, competent and influentially situated in the government, has been one of the conditions, and a major condition, which has permitted us to drift into our present dilemma where a nation, by tradition and experience opposed to the federalized administration of education, has in fact developed a pluralized federal control of education in the states through various federal agencies, which are not even co-ordinated in their efforts.

This drift toward centralized federal controls is attested by the effects of enabling acts, land and money grants with a restricted educational purpose, and approvals and vetoes of state plans, all sanctioned by law and departmental rulings.

The peculiar nature of the many educational services performed by the federal government requires their distribution through many departments, but their effective performance also requires among them a degree of co-operation and co-ordination which only the Chief Executive can insure. Without an educational officer of equal status with the heads of all other departments concerned, it would be impossible to secure that voluntary co-operation from all departments needed to integrate the educational resources of the government. No bureau chief or head of a detached or independent establishment can have that equal access to the Chief Executive and that equality of approach to the heads of all departments concerned essential to the effective total operation of education in the government.

The research and other scientific inquiry, upon which modern education depends for its constant improvement, requires that it be brought into effective application upon all educational services of the various departments now concerned with education in the states and outlying possessions. Unless the educational officer carrying the main responsibility for the development of educational research in all its phases is an officer equal in rank with the heads of departments involved, he cannot fulfil his purpose.

Finally, the processes and results of education are becoming increasingly used in the solution of our major national problems. The presence in the government of an officer of cabinet rank, charged with representing these processes and results in all their various ramifications would insure that effective contribution of education which is essential to the future political and social welfare of the nation.

We therefore recommend:

That a Department of Education with a Secretary of Education at its head be established in the federal government, in accordance with the following specifications.

Nucleus.—The nucleus for an appropriate organization of a Department of Education now exists in the United States Office of Education of the Department of the Interior. . . .

Concentration.—Transfer the Office of Education and all pertaining thereto to the Department of Education and establish it as a major division of that department under direction of an assistant secretary of education.

Amend the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and all acts subsequent thereto dealing with vocational education by repealing those provisions that require state matching of federal funds and federal approval of state plans and standards and that give federal officials authority to withhold funds; abolish the Federal Board for Vocational Education, transfer its remaining functions and its staff to the Department of Education, and establish the staff as a major division of that department under direction of an assistant secretary of education. These changes relieve that staff from its present obligation to ascertain and certify to federal officials whether federally aided schools are or are not complying with the provisions of federal acts. These changes also concentrate the energies of

that staff on co-operative studies and experiments designed to produce that fusion of humanistic and vocational training which is so sorely needed to promote the liberal and practical education of the American people in the several pursuits and professions in life.

Other existing federal activities, which have as their chief function educational investigation and information service and which are now operating in harmony with the policies and procedures recommended, such as the studies of physical growth of children now carried on in the Public Health Service, should also be transferred to the Department of Education.

No regulatory or executive responsibilities should be vested in the Department of Education through these transfers. . . .

Distribution.—Leave those federal educational activities which are instrumental or incidental to proper administration of some other primary function of the federal government under jurisdiction of the department which is responsible for that primary function. . . .

Co-ordination.—Establish an Interdepartmental Council on Education . . . to co-ordinate the policies and procedures of these dispersed federal educational activities. Designate the Secretary of Education chairman of this Interdepartmental Council and constitute the executive heads of every federal office intimately concerned as members. . . .

Scope.—The combined facilities of the present Office of Education and of the Federal Board for Vocational Education are inadequate to render the intellectual assistance which our recommendations require. Their recent inquiries and surveys, while constantly giving useful and accurate information much needed by the American people, do not cover some of the most important fields of federal responsibility for education. The Department of Education, when properly established, will have sufficient financial support to enable it to collect and publish critical data and pertinent information on all significant phases of education. . . .

Staff.—Under this plan the Secretary of Education will aid the President, the heads of departments, and Congress in consideration of educational problems. He will plan and organize the national research and information service of the department in such manner that all phases of the work are conducted in harmony with the policies and procedures recommended in this report. He will contribute constructively to development of the leadership which American education needs for its co-ordination and intelligent advance.

The assistant secretaries will direct the technical work of the department, supervise its publications and their distribution, and maintain co-operative professional relations with other educational institutions. . . .

Functions.—The Department of Education as here recommended will perform those functions that were assigned to the Department of Education when established in 1867. It will collect "such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several states and territories," and will diffuse "such information respecting the organization and management of

schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and will otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

Powers.—The Department of Education as here recommended will have no legal or financial power and no regulatory or executive authority, direct or indirect, explicit or implied, by which it may control the social purposes and specific processes of education. This limitation of powers necessitates a complete reversal of the tendency exhibited in much recent federal legislation to build up a centralized control of the purposes and processes of education in the federal government.

The upshot of these two main lines of recommendation, if carried out, would be a department of education with a secretary in the president's cabinet, but a department that would be without direct executive authority in educational matters either within or without the states.

Voting by the committee was done separately on the policies and the organization. On the recommendations concerning policies and procedures the vote was forty-five for and six against. The approach to unanimity was not so great in the vote on recommendations concerning governmental organization. Here the vote was thirty-eight for, eleven against, with two members not voting. On the report as a whole the vote was forty-three for and eight against.

Minority groups were accorded the opportunity to present reports. The two groups availing themselves of this privilege were the representatives of Catholic education and of negro education. The representatives of Catholic education expressed themselves as opposed to the establishment of the department of education in the federal government with a secretary at its head on the ground that "a department is not necessary to perform the basic function assigned to the federal headquarters for education by the report" and because they "are convinced that the establishment of a federal Department of Education will inevitably bring about centralization and federal control of education." The representatives of negro education believe that it is a unique obligation of the federal government to give special aid for schools for "by far the most disadvantaged educational group under state jurisdiction."

It is one thing to have a committee prepare a report and make its

recommendations and quite another to have the recommendations put into effect. The hundreds of thousands who have in recent years been considering this vital problem of federal relations to education will watch with interest the reception of this report and any action on it by the President and by Congress.

SELECTING AND PRINTING TEXTBOOKS IN CALIFORNIA

The Commonwealth Club of California is "a men's organization, state wide in its scope, organized to afford an impartial forum for the discussion of disputed questions." The membership is made up of a group of high-minded persons giving disinterested consideration to questions of public policy. The nature and range of the questions that engage their attention may be seen in the titles of the *Transactions of the Commonwealth Club of California*, in which are published the reports of its committees. Illustrative of titles of numbers of the *Transactions* published during the past two or three years are "Automobile Liability Insurance," "The Monroe Doctrine," "Filipino Immigration," "Health Insurance," "The City Manager Plan," "Music in the Schools," and "Doctor and Hospital Bills." An issue of the *Transactions* published in September of the past year is entitled "Selecting and Printing School Books." This pamphlet gives the report of the addresses and discussions at the August meeting of the club.

The problems considered at the meeting were two, namely, state printing of textbooks and state adoption of uniform textbooks. California began in 1885 to print textbooks for elementary schools. It is significant that after almost a half-century of experience with the plan state printing is still considered a debatable issue in California and by a group like the Commonwealth Club.

The number of the *Transactions* referred to contains, first, the report of the section on education, presented by the chairman, Charles Albert Adams. This report distinguishes state printing of textbooks and state adoption of uniform series and discusses the two problems separately. In the consideration of the first problem the question of whether or not the state should compete with private enterprise is waived as not germane to the purely educational point of view of the inquiry. No conclusion is presented concerning the

mechanical merits of state-printed books, although the report indicates that opinions of the mechanical adequacy of the present product differ widely. It is also contended that, if the state-printed books were just what the schools need as working tools, minor mechanical defects "would not be of supreme importance." The committee is most seriously concerned over the fact that many of the larger publishing companies will not lease the plates of their books and that, therefore, most of the best books are not available to elementary-school children of the state. The committee finds that "educators generally are opposed to state printing of textbooks." The report states that the cost issue is "not susceptible of definite proof" and that, even if the cost of state-printed books were found to be less than the cost of commercially printed books and although the cost factor is important, it should not after all be the determinative factor. The committee regards it as extremely significant that, although many other states have considered the California system, only one—Kansas—has adopted state printing of textbooks.

The conclusions of the committee touching state adoption of uniform textbooks are (1) that under this plan books which have outlived their usefulness continue in use, (2) that the advent of free textbooks has removed the principal reason for state adoption, (3) that uniform state textbooks prevent the adaptation of school work to individual differences, (4) that the educational unit preparing the course of study is the logical unit for the adoption of textbooks in order that textbooks will fit course outlines, and (5) that the preferable practice is probably to have the state board of education approve a list of elementary textbooks from which selections may be made by the adopting unit.

In addition to this report of the committee, the *Transactions* contains debates on the two issues represented and discussion from the floor. The affirmative of the debate on state printing of textbooks was upheld by Ray Williamson, member of the state assembly committee on education, and the negative by Willard E. Givens, superintendent of schools in Oakland. The affirmative of the question "School Superintendents Should Have Complete Freedom in Their Choice of Texts" was presented by Dean E. P. Cubberley, of Stanford University, and the negative by Marshall De Motte, member of

the California Commission for Study of Educational Problems. Those participating in discussion from the floor included a former governor, representatives of the Department of Education in the University of California, representatives of labor, a city superintendent of schools, and a former state superintendent of schools. The report, the debates, and the remarks combined to bring out all the major aspects of both problems and most of the important considerations on both sides.

The *Transactions of the Commonwealth Club of California* are distributed at its office at 345 Sutter Street, San Francisco, at twenty-five cents a copy.

FINE ARTS IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

This section of certain earlier issues of the *School Review* has referred to the investigation of the high-school curriculum carried on during the last school year under the auspices of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club. To the credit of the study it may be reported that discussion of the conclusions from the study continues. Among those whose appraisals of these findings have found their way into print is Edgar G. Johnston, principal of the University High School of the University of Michigan. In an editorial on "The Arts in Michigan High Schools" in the November *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin* he reports again the low esteem in which the field of the fine arts is held by school administrators of the state, deplores the current attitude, and appropriately urges a more prominent place for this field in the high-school curriculum.

The curriculum study reported at the 1931 meeting of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club represents a significant contribution to secondary education in Michigan. This sampling of the opinions of those actually in charge of the administration of schools should have a considerable bearing on future trends in curriculum revision in the state.

As is frequently the case, certain negative findings of this study are quite as significant as the positive trends of opinion. The attitude of the school men toward that group of activities classified as "fine arts," including music, illustrates the point. Fine arts share with languages the unwelcome distinction of receiving the lowest percentage of opinion assigning "large and good values" to their contribution. Few administrators suggested that expansion in this field would be desirable. As Dr. Congdon says in summary, "Fine-arts subjects would not be considered of enough value to be given much attention." A further

comparison of the figures for fine arts and languages is still more revealing. The language group was rated by 61 per cent and the fine arts by only 22 per cent. One is forced to the suspicion that the lack of enthusiasm for the arts group is to a considerable extent due to the fact that the majority of those who participated in the study had given little thought to potential values in this field. . . .

The lack of an informed opinion on the part of Michigan principals should not occasion surprise. As we survey the offerings in secondary schools and colleges and the emphases in American life during the years while the present generation of teachers was coming to maturity, we find scant attention to fields of aesthetic interest. Our attention has been absorbed with "practical things."

Only as the soil is prepared for them in a body of intelligent consumers and vigorous creators, are artistic values likely to represent an important phase of American life. The point seems worth stressing here that we are ripe for such a development. The problem of using leisure in socially constructive ways is already a serious one, and no solution offers more hope than the development of interests and discrimination in art and music.

It is important to emphasize that in speaking of fine arts we do not have in mind merely the acquisition of polite accomplishment as a stamp of "culture." The drawing and piano lessons of the young ladies' finishing school in the nineties had no real relation to art; the field is a broad one—as broad as human imagination. Fine arts conceived as a significant and vital phase of human experience may serve to enrich the high-school curriculum for many who fail to profit from it now, may fill leisure time with constructive interests, and may develop a community consciousness that will refuse to tolerate the ugliness which plays too large a part in American life.

Already significant beginnings have been made in some Michigan schools, and it is safe to predict that the next decade will see a notable advance in this direction. It does not seem too much to ask of a modern high school that it provide encouragement and opportunity for development to those with talent and that it bring to all a realization of the contribution which the arts may make to richer living. The opportunities in this direction must receive serious attention of Michigan administrators if those in charge of the schools are to exert intelligent leadership in the curricular revisions of the next ten years and are not to find themselves in the position of making reluctant concessions to popular demand.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE AND FINANCIAL RETRENCHMENT IN CHICAGO

In these days when efforts to economize in public expenditures are the rule, we may confidently expect those who do not understand the forces of reorganization in education to advocate lopping off first the outlays for the more recent additions to the school sys-

tem. Among the innovations in some communities thus slated by the uninformed for elimination is the junior college. Such a proposal has been made touching Crane Junior College in Chicago. The governor of Illinois recently issued a call for a special session of the legislature of the state. The chief concern of the session, which is in progress at this writing, is known to be the financial plight of the nation's second largest city. In his call Governor Emmerson referred to the problem of Crane Junior College. An editorial in the *Chicago Daily Tribune* abets the proposal to abolish the institution.

The governor has included in his legislative call the matter of the Crane Junior College. Some doubt has arisen regarding the right of the board of education to operate a college. The special session presumably will decide the matter by authorizing or not authorizing the board to provide collegiate training.

The legislature has been called primarily to solve Chicago's financial difficulties. Among the most pressing are those of the public-school system. There is not enough money on hand to pay the teachers all that is due them. Recent efforts to economize have resulted in larger classes with the inevitable consequence of inferior instruction. Any money which the Chicago board of education appropriates for a college is money taken from the children in the lower grades for whose education the school system was called into being.

If the city had made adequate provision for the grade schools and high schools and still had funds available, there might be some justification for the operation of a free college. The fact is, of course, that the teachers are unpaid and the cost of high schools is becoming so oppressive that many students of educational problems are convinced that it will soon be necessary either to limit enrolment in the high schools to the abler pupils or charge tuition for high-school training.

Under these circumstances it is idle to think of maintaining a free college.

The major misapprehension of the proposal to abolish the public junior college is the assumption that this institution is another "college" instead of a logical extension of the secondary school and the rounding-out of the full period of secondary education. The repetition of the word "college" in the editorial quoted is evidence of this misapprehension. The present financial predicament of Chicago should be only temporary and is generally conceded to be the outcome of bad management. It can hardly be used as an argument. One of the wealthiest cities of the world should not balk at providing any part of the full gamut of basic education from the kindergarten through the extended secondary school.

CO-OPERATIVE INDUSTRIAL TRAINING IN A
SMALL COMMUNITY

Although not the most frequent type of vocational industrial training afforded, co-operative industrial training has had significant development at the secondary level since the introduction of early examples like those at Fitchburg and Beverly in Massachusetts. Typically, however, the plan is to be found only in larger industrial centers, and it is seldom that part-time, co-operative industrial training has been put in operation in small cities. One community of moderate size in which such training is being provided is Kalispell, a city in northwestern Montana with a population of about six thousand. The work, referred to as an experiment, has been developed in connection with the Flathead County High School under the direction of Payne Templeton, principal, and H. N. Kauffman, co-ordinator. The following statement describing the features and results of the plan, which has been in operation for three years, is quoted from and based on a brief manuscript prepared by Mr. Kauffman.

The work is reported to have three objectives: (1) to give vocational training, (2) to provide vocational guidance, and (3) to develop better school attitudes. The evidence cited gives some notion of the extent to which these objectives are being attained.

During the past three years ninety boys have taken co-operative industrial work. The boy attends school one half day and is at work the other half at a chosen vocation. He takes two or three subjects in school and receives school credit for the downtown work. The work in school is related as closely as possible to the work on the job. The project has received Smith-Hughes indorsement. . . . The success of the plan depends rather largely on the good will and co-operativeness of the employers. Pupils are not paid when they first begin the work, but later on the employer pays something according to the worth of the boy. Under no circumstances is the boy allowed to take the place of a regular employee; his place is that of a learner and student. Generally speaking, the boys in this course are of the type who do not fare well in academic subjects. Many, perhaps most, of them would normally drop school long before graduation.

Eighteen vocations are represented. Twenty-nine boys have engaged in automobile mechanics; six, in automobile service; six, in electricity; four, in radio; three, in sheet-metal work; two, in photography; two, in cabinet work; two, in shoe repair; two, in drug-store work; two, in printing; two, in book-

keeping; and one each, in plumbing, greenhouse culture, tailoring, bakery, creamery, newspaper reporting, and farming. There have been thirty-two salesmen, eight of whom worked in grocery stores, eight in clothing stores, three as automobile salesmen, two in shoe stores, and two in hardware stores.

The excess in the number of employments represented in this list over the total of ninety different boys who have been reported as taking the work is explained by the shift of some of the boys from one occupation to some other. Thirty-two boys, or 36 per cent of all, shifted from one occupation to another or dropped co-operative work to resume a full school schedule. Some guidance value of the plan may be inferred from some of these shifts.

Seventy-four, or 82 per cent, of the boys have been employed for pay after school hours and on Saturdays. It is the co-ordinator's opinion that these seventy-four boys "must have received some fairly definite and effective vocational training or they would not have been hired for after-school employment." He notes that the boys who changed vocations or dropped the work altogether were among those who did no after-school or Saturday work. A fourth of all the boys are now employed at full-time work, while a full two-fifths of all have been trained for full-time employment. Some of those who were trained for full-time employment were unable, on account of current economic conditions, to secure work. The evidence on full-time employment or preparation for it points to vocational-training values of the plan.

Mr. Kauffman reports that 70 per cent of the boys did better school work or showed an improved attitude toward school work after entering the co-operative plan. The work of the remainder of the boys was neither worse nor better than their work before entering the vocational training.

INDUCTING THE NEW TEACHER INTO SERVICE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

School authorities in Los Angeles have recently turned their attention to the problem of inducting new teachers into service in the high schools. The magnitude of the problem is suggested in the following quotation from a study of the numbers of new teachers in the high schools of that city reported in the *Los Angeles Educational Research Bulletin*.

The last five-year period from 1925 to 1930 has seen an unprecedented growth in the school population of Los Angeles high schools. Many new secondary schools have been organized, and the established ones have grown greatly. In order to care adequately for the great expansion, many new teachers have been employed, and many teachers have been transferred from one school to another. The extent of this expansion may be seen in the accompanying tables [not reproduced here], which give pertinent facts relative to the employment of teachers new to the Los Angeles school system and the transfer of teachers from school to school.

The tables show that in nine semesters' time 2,466 teachers have been assigned to the secondary schools of Los Angeles. Of this number 587, or 24 per cent, have had no teaching experience before entering the system. This is an average of 117 per year. Seven hundred and fifty, or 30 per cent, have had experience in other cities. Three hundred and twenty-seven teachers have changed from elementary to junior and senior high schools; 111 have moved from junior to senior high schools; and 61 have transferred from senior to junior high schools. One hundred and eighty-four teachers have been transferred from one junior high school to another, while 414 have made a change from one senior high school to another.

The methods worked out to be used in inducting new teachers were agreed on by a local committee working under the direction of the Committee on Organization of Investigations in Secondary Education of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association. This local committee was composed mainly of principals of high schools in the city but included also Charles H. Nettels, representative of the Psychology and Educational Research Division, and Helen Watson Pierce and Arthur Gould (chairman), assistant superintendents in the system.

The program of adjustment planned was classified under three headings: (1) adjustment to material resources of the school, (2) adjustment to the personnel of the school, and (3) adjustment to the life of the school. The outline of orientation under the first heading includes methods of acquainting the teacher with plans and details of buildings and grounds and with the content of a printed teachers' handbook or guide to contain information concerning the organization of the school, the use of printed forms, the factors of administrative detail, instructions to classroom and home-room teachers, extra-curriculum activities, pupil organizations, and the ideals and traditions of the school. Adjustment to the personnel of the school is to be aided by the principal's office and by the department head.

Among the suggested methods of adjusting the teacher to the life of the school are the supervisory program, requesting some experienced teacher to exercise a sort of sponsorship over the new recruit, and assigning a mature pupil to assist him.

HISTORY OF INFLUENTIAL NATIONAL COMMITTEES

The *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* is carrying a series of articles dealing with the influential reports of historical national committees and commissions which have dealt with the secondary school and its offering. The first of these articles, which appeared in the November number and which was prepared by Thomas H. Briggs, deals with the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies (1892). Succeeding issues of the journal will contain other articles in the full series as follows: Committee on the Correlation of Studies (1897), by Lee Byrne; Committee on College Entrance Requirements (1899), by Bancroft Beatley; Committee on Economy of Time in Education (1905-13), by Willis L. Uhl; Committee upon the Articulation of High School and College (1911), by Calvin O. Davis; the more recent Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, by V. T. Thayer. Both the series and its authorship should attract the student of secondary education. Reports of committees are more deserving of consideration by those who would understand the influences at work in reorganizing schools than are the pronouncements of individuals, and these six reports will provide a unique record of the expansion of the scope and meaning of secondary education in this country. Besides, as Professor Davis indicates in his comment on the series, consideration of the reports of great national committees will be particularly appropriate in connection with the proposed celebration of the tercentenary of the establishment of the first secondary school on this continent in 1635, a celebration being fostered by the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS' OPINIONS OF THE UNIT PLAN

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I. INTRODUCTION

Evaluating the unit plan.—The importance of evaluating the unit plan of instruction is suggested by the wide use of the plan. In practice the unit assignment is a major feature of the problem method, the project method, the contract plan, the individualized plan of instruction, and the laboratory plan of instruction.¹ If to this fact is added the better-known fact that the unit assignment is a prominent characteristic of the Dalton and Morrison plans and of the Winnetka technique, it at once becomes apparent that the unit assignment is one of the most frequently used and most widely distributed means of providing for the individual differences of pupils in the secondary schools of the United States.

The difficulty of evaluating the unit plan is suggested by a consideration of the present-day objectives of education. In addition to the accumulation of facts and information, educationists are insisting on the development of habits, attitudes, concepts, or ideals as important objectives of the educative process. Available measuring devices are at best crude instruments for determining the extent to which these last-named objectives are being attained through any method of classroom instruction. A need for supplementary techniques is keenly felt.

Point of view of the present study.—The study reported in this article takes its cue from the importance attached by all present-day educationists to the pupil's emotional set toward his task. Whether this be referred to as "interest," as "whole-hearted, purposeful activity," or as something else is quite immaterial. If there is to be

¹ Roy O. Billett, "What the High Schools Are Doing for the Individual," *School Life*, XVI (January, 1931), 85-87.

any education, it is generally agreed, there must be pupil activity; and, other things being equal, that activity is best which the pupil regards as intrinsically worth while. Therefore, if one would evaluate any teaching technique, it would appear highly desirable to arrive by systematic means at the pupil's emotional set toward, and intellectual reactions to, the teaching procedure under consideration. This attempt should be made after the pupil has been given a thorough opportunity for wide experience under the plan or procedure being evaluated in order that he may have an adequate background for comparison, not merely reporting reactions to something transient and novel in his experience.

From the point of view set forth in the preceding paragraph, an attempt was made to discover what boys and girls of various levels of intelligence, accomplishment, and application believe to be the advantages and disadvantages of the unit plan of instruction as contrasted with the traditional classroom procedure. The study was conducted in the Thomas W. Harvey Memorial High School, Painesville, Ohio, from September, 1927, to March, 1928. In this report the following topics are discussed in the order named: first, the nature of the classroom procedure which is here designated as the unit plan of instruction; second, the method used to discover what pupils think of the plan; third, the presentation and interpretation of what pupils think of the plan; and fourth, a critical evaluation of the plan with suggestions for its modification and improvement.

2. NATURE OF THE PLAN HERE DESIGNATED AS THE UNIT PLAN OF INSTRUCTION

Each teacher whose pupils contributed to this study followed a general plan which is indicated in Table I. The traditional subject matter of each course was retained. The semester's work was organized into three units, each planned to occupy the attention of the pupils for six weeks. Each unit was subdivided into six problems, each problem intended to occupy the attention of the most capable pupils for about one week. Problems 1, 2, and 3 covered the minimum work which any pupil should accomplish during the six-weeks' period. Problems 4, 5, and 6 provided work of a related but more advanced nature for the more industrious or capable pupils. At the

end of the six-weeks' period the pupils discontinued work on one unit and began work on the next unit. The teacher made such exceptions to this rule as seemed advisable.

Examinations.—Examinations were given at the end of each problem, at the end of each unit, and at the end of the semester. Two equivalent objective examinations were prepared to cover each problem where this type of examination could be used. In case the pupil failed on Form One, he could be assigned further work on the problem and be tested later with Form Two. Oral or essay examinations were given when the nature of the work seemed to demand them.

TABLE I
GENERAL PLAN FOR A SEMESTER'S WORK IN A SUBJECT

UNIT	PROBLEMS REQUIRED FOR A PASSING MARK OF D	SUPPLEMENTARY PROBLEMS REQUIRED FOR A MARK OF—		
		C	B	A
First six-weeks' unit.....	1, 2, 3	4	4, 5	4, 5, 6
Second six-weeks' unit.....	7, 8, 9	10	10, 11	10, 11, 12
Third six-weeks' unit.....	13, 14, 15	16	16, 17	16, 17, 18

Mechanical aids and equipment.—Certain important mechanical aids were furnished the teachers. Guide sheets to cover the work of each problem were mimeographed in sufficient quantities to permit each pupil to have a copy. Each guide sheet contained a statement of the problem, assigned references and readings by chapters or pages, and gave questions and aids for study. Sometimes hypotheses for the solution of problems were suggested. Each teacher was provided with metal file cases to hold a supply of guide sheets, copies of examinations for each problem, and a set of folders for the completed work of the pupils. A record card was prepared for each pupil upon which could be entered the date of satisfactory completion of each problem. Necessary reference books were placed in the rooms where the classes worked.

Classroom activities.—The teaching and learning procedures varied radically from those of the traditional classroom. Little class time was taken in making assignments. The pupils advanced at their

own rates while the teacher studied and directed their progress, discovering individual weaknesses and giving help where needed. The teacher occasionally gave brief lectures or explanations concerning common errors of the class which were discovered through observation of the pupils' daily work or through analysis of the results of an objective test. Before a test pupils were free to organize discussion groups with the teacher participating. These group discussions usually lasted from ten to fifteen minutes. In the final summary of a unit the teacher might lecture for an entire period. When a pupil felt that he had mastered a problem, he requested and received a copy of the appropriate test and wrote out his answers during the class period or gave them orally to the teacher, depending on the nature of the problem. Later the test was scored by the teacher in the pupil's presence, and any errors were discussed.

3. METHOD OF DISCOVERING PUPILS' OPINIONS OF THE PLAN

Collection of data.—The data reported in this study are derived from the reactions of three groups of pupils to two inquiries concerning their experience with work on the unit plan. These groups consisted of (1) seventy-five pupils in three tenth-grade sections in plane geometry, taught by Teacher A, a woman; (2) eighty-four pupils in four eleventh-grade sections in English literature, taught by Teacher B, a woman; and (3) 104 pupils in five twelfth-grade sections in English composition and classics, taught by Teacher C, a man. Teachers A and B had worked out their plans during the summer of 1927. During the same summer Teacher C had revised a plan which he had been using during the two preceding years. All three teachers had been aided by numerous faculty discussions which had been held during the preceding three years on the question of placing instruction on the unit, or individual, basis.

After six months of experience with the individualized plan each pupil filled out a short inquiry form in which he was asked to state the advantages and disadvantages of the plan. A second inquiry, constructed from the replies to the first inquiry, was presented to the pupils two weeks later. The following method was used in constructing the second inquiry. First, all statements of supposed advantages of the plan made in the tenth grade were read. Each statement

which the investigator believed to be pertinent was written on a card. These cards were sorted, and duplicates were thrown out. Forty-one statements representing advantages remained. The statements of supposed disadvantages of the plan made in the tenth grade were handled in a similar manner, and twelve statements representing supposed disadvantages were finally selected. The replies of the eleventh-grade pupils yielded thirty-seven statements of supposed advantages and thirty-two statements of supposed disadvantages. The replies of the twelfth grade yielded forty-three statements of supposed advantages and twenty-eight statements of supposed disadvantages.

Statements bearing on a common topic were gathered together by sorting into piles the cards on which the advantages were recorded. The cards naming disadvantages were treated similarly. In this manner eighteen general statements were derived under which the favorable statements made by the pupils of all three grades could be classified. Twenty general statements covering the statements of disadvantages were similarly derived.

Next a checking list for each class was built from these thirty-eight general statements under which the statements made by the pupils were subordinated. Space permits reproducing only the general statements in this article. It should be noted that the eighteen *general* statements of advantages and the twenty *general* statements of disadvantages¹ were included on each checking list. However, the checking list for any given grade carried only such sub-statements as had actually been submitted on the first inquiry by pupils of that grade. In each sub-statement the actual wording of the pupil was retained. The second checking list was so arranged that each pupil could indicate by underscoring whether any given statement was true or false for him personally.

GENERAL STATEMENTS WHICH APPEARED ON SECOND CHECKING LIST

ALLEGED ADVANTAGES

1. The written work aids in mastery of subject matter.
2. Definite assignments are helpful.
3. Directions for study are helpful.
4. The plan increases pupil interest.

¹ These statements were *not* classified under the headings "advantages" and "disadvantages" on the checking lists.

5. The plan places the pupil on his own responsibility.
6. The plan provides for pupil self-expression.
7. The plan gives pupil help when he needs it.
8. Pupil works harder under the plan.
9. Pupil accomplishes more under the plan.
10. Results accomplished under the plan are satisfactory to the pupil.
11. The frequent tests require thorough work.
12. Marks are awarded according to pupil's accomplishment.
13. The plan enables pupil to work at his own rate.
14. The plan economizes pupil's time.
15. The plan eliminates the necessity for failing.
16. The plan gives all students equal opportunity.
17. Pupil working under this plan is not subject to ridicule from classmates.
18. Review is easier by the unit method.

ALLEGED DISADVANTAGES

1. The unit plan involves too much writing.
2. The plan does not involve enough oral work.
3. The unit plan emphasizes detail too much.
4. The plan takes too much time and effort for amount learned.
5. The plan does not require a uniform amount of work each week.
6. There are not enough questions and reference aids.
7. Questions and aids are not well worded.
8. There is not enough review provided.
9. The teacher is not able to be of so much help to students under the unit plan.
10. The unit plan makes the study of the subject less interesting and pleasurable.
11. The student loses under the plan in that he does not get other students' views.
12. Work missed because of absence is harder to make up by unit plan.
13. There is more cheating and dishonesty under the unit plan.
14. Some problems are too long.
15. The tests are too easy.
16. Plan is not fair to bright students.
17. Plan does not correct student's wrong ideas so quickly as does the classroom plan.
18. Plan favors "cramming."
19. The plan is complicated and makes the subject hard to understand.
20. Tests are not graded out rapidly enough by teacher.

The organization of data.—The replies of the pupils to these checking lists were tabulated by grades in such a way that the unit plan of instruction might be seen from several points of view, as indicated by the data in Table II. First, the pupils were ranked according to

TABLE II

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN EACH OF THREE LEVELS OF ACADEMIC INTELLIGENCE
ACCOMPLISHMENT, AND APPLICATION AND RANGE OF EACH LEVEL

LEVELS FOR EACH BASIS OF RANKING	NUMBER OF PUPILS			RANGE
	Boys	Girls	Both	
	Geometry (Grade X)			
Academic intelligence:				
High.....	7	20	27	110-41
Middle.....	11	12	23	99-109
Low.....	20	5	25	78-97
Total.....	38	37	75
Accomplishment:				
High.....	8	16	24	2.2-1.2
Middle.....	11	13	24	3.0-2.3
Low.....	19	8	27	4.5-3.2
Total.....	38	37	75
Application:				
High.....	9	17	26	2.0-1.0
Middle.....	15	14	29	3.0-2.2
Low.....	14	6	20	4.8-3.2
Total.....	38	37	75
	English (Grade XI)			
Academic intelligence:				
High.....	16	12	28	113-41
Middle.....	8	18	26	102-12
Low.....	11	19	30	80-100
Total.....	35	49	84
Accomplishment:				
High.....	12	17	29	2.6-1.0
Middle.....	10	18	28	3.2-2.8
Low.....	13	14	27	4.2-3.3
Total.....	35	49	84
Application:				
High.....	13	19	32	2.2-1.0
Middle.....	10	12	22	2.8-2.4
Low.....	12	18	30	4.3-3.0
Total.....	35	49	84

TABLE II—Continued

LEVELS FOR EACH BASIS OF RANKING	NUMBER OF PUPILS			RANGE
	Boys	Girls	Both	
	English (Grade XII)			
Academic intelligence:				
High.....	15	21	36	114-44
Middle.....	12	22	34	103-13
Low.....	12	22	34	80-102
Total.....	39	65	104
Accomplishment:				
High.....	8	30	38	2.2-1.3
Middle.....	14	23	37	3.0-2.3
Low.....	17	12	29	4.3-3.2
Total.....	39	65	104
Application:				
High.....	9	25	34	1.8-1.0
Middle.....	10	25	35	2.5-2.0
Low.....	20	15	35	4.5-2.6
Total.....	39	65	104

academic intelligence as determined by the higher of two intelligence quotients for each pupil derived from the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, and the replies were tabulated to show the reactions of the boys, of the girls, and of the total group (both boys and girls) of each third on this basis of ranking. Next, the pupils were ranked according to a composite rating in accomplishment.¹ The replies were then tabulated to show the reactions of the boys, of the girls, and of both boys and girls combined, of each third. Finally, the pupils were ranked according to a composite rating in application,² and the replies were again tabulated as described.

¹ The method of securing this rating has been described in detail in R. O. Billett, "Another Principal's Views on Intelligence Tests," *American School Board Journal*, LXXIV (February, 1927), 47-48. "Accomplishment" was defined as the "amount of high-grade work done, regardless of effort put forth." Following printed instructions, several teachers rated each pupil on a five-point scale, one being the highest rating and five being the lowest. The composite rating of each pupil was the average of the ratings, usually five in number.

² The rating in application was derived in the same way as the rating in accomplishment. Briefly, "application" is here used to refer to the degree of effort put forth by a pupil on his school work regardless of work accomplished.

4. PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF PUPIL REACTIONS TO THE PLAN

Introduction.—In order that inter-comparison of the reactions of the eighty-one different groups shown in Table II to each general statement and to each sub-statement might be facilitated, the frequency with which each group approved each statement or sub-statement was reduced to a percentage. This procedure yielded a mass of data which will be summarized in order that the significant findings may be readily available to the reader. Considerable importance is attached in the remainder of this report to the *central tendencies*, or typical reactions, of the various individual groups. Therefore, it is advisable to explain that the typical reactions of an individual group to the alleged advantages and disadvantages of the plan were obtained by calculating four arithmetic means: (1) the arithmetic mean of the group's reactions (expressed in a percentage) to the eighteen *general* statements representing the supposed advantages of the plan, (2) the arithmetic mean of the group's reactions to the twenty *general* statements representing the supposed disadvantages of the plan, (3) the arithmetic mean of the group's reactions to the statements made by the pupils and classified under the eighteen supposed advantages of the plan, and (4) the arithmetic mean of the group's reactions to the statements made by the pupils and classified under the twenty supposed disadvantages of the plan. It was assumed that, if 70 per cent or more of the individual pupils composing a group approve or disapprove a statement, the group might be regarded as approving or disapproving the statement. The central tendencies of the reactions of the pupils are given in Table III.

Central tendencies of the reactions of the eleventh-grade English pupils to the alleged advantages and disadvantages of the plan.—Three obvious and important relationships emerge from a consideration of the central tendencies of the reactions of the eleventh-grade English pupils to the plan. First, the boys and girls of all levels of academic intelligence, accomplishment, and application affirmed the alleged advantages of the plan and denied the alleged disadvantages (Table III). The central tendency of approval of the unit plan of instruc-

TABLE III
AVERAGE PERCENTAGES OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN GRADES X-XII WHO STATED
THAT THE ALLEGED ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE UNIT
PLAN WERE TRUE FOR THEM PERSONALLY

LEVELS FOR EACH BASIS OF RANKING	ADVANTAGES				DISADVANTAGES			
	General Statements		Sub-Statements		General Statements		Sub-Statements	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Geometry (Grade X)								
Academic intelligence:								
High.....	71	83	74	83	40	23	60	45
Middle.....	93	86	87	87	28	26	51	51
Low.....	82	86	80	86	32	30	56	65
Accomplishment:								
High.....	81	77	83	79	37	26	58	47
Middle.....	84	90	78	90	30	16	54	41
Low.....	83	85	82	88	32	35	56	70
Application:								
High.....	84	80	86	87	28	20	45	42
Middle.....	77	79	77	85	34	29	60	52
Low.....	82	81	85	90	33	29	57	62
English (Grade XI)								
Academic intelligence:								
High.....	71	72	76	80	53	53	61	60
Middle.....	74	86	75	88	45	39	52	47
Low.....	78	86	81	88	39	44	50	47
Accomplishment:								
High.....	68	90	73	88	64	45	70	52
Middle.....	79	79	82	86	36	44	50	50
Low.....	75	83	75	85	39	40	46	47
Application:								
High.....	71	86	76	88	50	45	58	54
Middle.....	82	98	82	90	48	34	54	36
Low.....	69	76	74	82	42	47	53	56
English (Grade XII)								
Academic intelligence:								
High.....	80	83	79	79	44	38	48	46
Middle.....	89	92	88	89	36	30	40	32
Low.....	87	90	86	86	36	32	35	34
Accomplishment:								
High.....	77	90	77	88	52	32	55	35
Middle.....	86	85	85	80	32	38	34	43
Low.....	87	93	86	88	38	31	41	33
Application:								
High.....	73	88	75	86	52	33	55	37
Middle.....	90	91	88	85	30	33	33	37
Low.....	87	87	85	84	39	34	41	39

tion ranges from 68 and 69 per cent for the boys of the highest and lowest levels of accomplishment and application, respectively, up to 98 per cent for the girls of the middle level of application. On the other hand, the central tendency of disapproval of the plan ranges from 34 per cent for the girls of the middle level of application up to 70 per cent for the boys of the highest level of accomplishment. Second, compared with the girls the boys were less impressed with the advantages of the plan and were more impressed with the disadvantages. Of eighteen comparisons of the central tendencies of the reactions of boys and girls (in the English classes in Grade XI) to the advantages of the plan, seventeen show lower percentages of approval by the boys. In the remaining comparison the percentages of approval are the same. On the other hand, of eighteen comparisons of the central tendencies of the reactions of the boys and girls to the disadvantages of the plan, ten show higher percentages of disapproval on the part of the boys, two show equal degrees of disapproval, and six show higher percentages of disapproval on the part of the girls. Third, pupils of the highest levels of academic intelligence, accomplishment, and application, respectively, show a greater tendency to disapprove the plan than pupils of other levels. They are supported in a lesser degree in this tendency by the pupils of the lowest level of application. Pupils of the middle levels of academic intelligence, accomplishment, or application were relatively unimpressed by the alleged disadvantages of the plan.

Central tendencies of the reactions of tenth-grade geometry pupils and twelfth-grade English pupils to the alleged advantages and disadvantages of the plan.—The three trends shown in the case of eleventh-grade English pupils are obviously characteristic of the central tendencies of the reactions of both the tenth-grade geometry pupils and the twelfth-grade English pupils, as is indicated in Table III. First, both tenth-grade geometry pupils and twelfth-grade English pupils show the same marked trend toward general acceptance of the plan as one with advantages which far outweigh its disadvantages. Second, the sex trend in the reactions of the tenth-grade and twelfth-grade pupils is unmistakably dominant though not so marked as in the reactions of the eleventh-grade pupils. Third, the tendency for the groups from the highest and lowest levels to be less favorably

impressed with the plan than were the groups from the middle levels is also present to a marked degree in the reactions of both tenth-grade and twelfth-grade pupils.

Review of central tendencies.—A total of 108 central tendencies of reactions to the alleged advantages of the unit plan of instruction have been presented in Table III. It is remarkable that not one of these central tendencies indicates a percentage of approval of less than 68. The maximum degree of acceptance is 98 per cent. One must conclude that boys and girls of all levels of academic intelligence, accomplishment, and application, whether the subject matter be geometry or English, regard the unit plan as a distinct improvement over the traditional recitation procedure. Moreover, this conclusion is suggested with equal force by a consideration of the tendencies of the same pupils to react to the alleged disadvantages of the plan. In only two cases out of the 108 does the central tendency of reaction of any group to the disadvantages of the plan become as great as 70 per cent. There are only 17 cases, of a total of 108, in which groups affirmed the disadvantages of the plan to the extent of 55 per cent or more. Two interesting analyses of these seventeen central tendencies are possible. The first analysis shows that twelve of the seventeen are central tendencies of groups of boys—a fact which illustrates the trend already noted, namely, that the girls were better satisfied with the plan than were the boys. The second analysis shows that nine of the seventeen are central tendencies of groups from the highest levels of academic intelligence, accomplishment, and application; seven are central tendencies of groups from the lowest levels; and only one is a central tendency of a group ranking in the middle levels. In other words, pupils of the highest levels were somewhat impatient with certain features of the plan. Pupils of the lowest levels found certain other features of the plan not to their liking. Pupils of the middle levels were favorably impressed with all characteristics of the plan. The nature of the objections to the plan raised by pupils from the highest and lowest levels is indicated in the remaining paragraphs of this report.

Interpretation of major trends in reactions to the unit plan.—The following interpretation not only takes into consideration the central tendencies which have already been presented but also certain re-

actions of individual groups to individual statements and sub-statements. The limitations of space make it impossible to refer in detail to any considerable number of the thousands of separate group reactions.

English as presented in the twelfth grade came nearest to complete approval as a distinct improvement over the traditional classroom procedure. Geometry in the tenth grade ranked as a close second. English in the eleventh grade was approved to a degree noticeably less than either of the other two subjects. Nevertheless, it received marked preference when presented on the unit plan. The probable explanation of this order of preference is found in two facts: First, the nature of the subject matter of geometry favors rapid and successful introduction of the unit plan. Second, the course in twelfth-grade English had been organized on the unit plan for three years and had undergone numerous changes and revisions aimed at improvement.

One of the most distinct trends in the responses of the various groups is the tendency for the boys to approve the alleged advantages of the plan to a lesser degree, and sanction the alleged disadvantages to a greater degree, than the girls. This trend in the case of the boys of the highest levels of academic intelligence, application, and accomplishment is so manifest that it is revealed by even a casual inspection of Table III. A careful study of this trend has shown that the fundamental objection raised by the boys takes its origin in what might be termed the rigidity of the plan. Despite the fact that four levels were provided for in the plan, *within a given level* pupils did tasks which were too uniform and which allowed too little chance for choosing alternatives or for originating projects. The boys also accepted with less patience than the girls the too general and extensive requirements in written work. These differences cannot be ascribed to differences in academic intelligence or industry between the boys and girls, for the groups compared were equated in both these respects. Perhaps the answer is found in the greater freedom for experience and adventure in a boy's life which develops in him impatience with methods of attaining goals which are roundabout, unnecessarily burdensome, or too definitely prescribed. However that may be, it is clear that the plan in some respects was really

too rigid and provided too few alternative methods of attaining goals and probably too few alternative goals.

Groups of the highest levels in academic intelligence, application, and accomplishment were less satisfied with the advantages of the plan and more keenly aware of the disadvantages of the plan than the groups of the middle or lowest levels. This finding should occasion no surprise since pupils who have been highly successful under the traditional classroom plan have much to lose and nothing to gain by change if the definition of success remains constant. It is remarkable that the central tendency of the groups of these higher levels is to approve the plan. Moreover, the alterations which should be made in the plan to remove their objections are obvious; reasonable, and easily accomplished.

There is a noticeable tendency in all three grades for groups rating lowest in application to react in a fashion similar to those groups of the highest levels of academic intelligence, application, or accomplishment *but probably for a quite different reason*. Unquestionably the unit plan creates a situation where inactivity results in complete stagnation, which is plainly manifest to both pupil and teacher. This result is especially disconcerting to those who have learned to keep afloat on the current of ordinary class activity with a minimum of effort. Yet the central tendency of such pupils is to approve the plan.

The most able and industrious groups in all three grades objected to the amount of written work required and insisted that more oral and group work should be provided. These groups were supported to a certain extent in this position by the less capable and industrious groups.

In all three grades the groups were inclined to regard the plan as neither more nor less interesting than the traditional classroom plan. Pupils of the tenth and eleventh grades inclined more toward sanctioning the plan in this respect. To one who carefully synthesizes the pupils' responses to the various statements dealing directly or indirectly with interest, it is evident that the pupils had clearly in mind something not inconsistent with what interest should mean, namely, that relation between the individual and the goal set which

makes the goal and the activity necessary for attaining the goal seem worth while to the individual.

Statements unanimously approved by all groups in all grades.—It is significant that a number of statements purporting to be advantages of the plan received the unanimous approval of both boys and girls of all levels of academic intelligence, accomplishment, and application in all three grades. The statements thus generally approved are Statements 2, 3, 5, 11, 12, 13, 16, and 17 of the list of advantages previously given. In addition, the twelfth grade also approved unanimously Statements 14 and 15.

When the statements and the related sub-statements approved by all groups in all grades are assembled and interpreted, the gist of the case for the unit plan of instruction is as follows: The definite assignments made in advance are helpful. The directions for study and other aids are clear and easy to follow and can be referred to as frequently as the pupil desires. The plan places the pupil on his own responsibility. The work of each unit must be mastered before the pupil can advance. Marks are impartially awarded according to pupil accomplishment. The "pupil is the only one to blame" if he does not get a good mark. The pupil may work at his own rate with more freedom to budget his time or to determine when he shall do the work required of him. The plan economizes the pupil's time through definite, typewritten assignments, through "giving him opportunity to hear explanations of things he does not know, and through enabling him to omit listening to explanations of what he already knows." The plan makes failure unnecessary even for slow pupils if they are willing to work. The plan gives all pupils equal opportunity and eliminates a certain amount of objectionable ridicule to which some pupils, notably the slow, are subjected in the traditional classroom work.

If to these statements are added the others upon which a large majority of the groups were agreed (to which specific reference is impossible here because of lack of space), there is apparently every reason why this plan should be continued subject to such modifications as are likely to make the plan even more generally acceptable to pupils.

5. SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT

Each unit should be preceded by diagnostic tests aiming to discover pupils who need not study the unit at all or pupils who may be excused from work on certain portions of it.

On every level pupils should have a greater choice of projects or problems. On the higher levels, at least, pupils should be permitted to suggest their own projects. A variety of methods of attaining each goal should be recognized. *If the work required to secure a mark of D is done at all by capable pupils, then these pupils should be permitted to use methods best adapted to their ability.* For example, practice and drill material may be omitted by them if it proves a nonessential for mastery.

The individual work period should occupy less of the total class time. More small group discussions should be called when pupils have attained certain predetermined "instruction points." The pupils, especially the more capable, should also report to the class on interesting phases of the advanced projects. These reports should frequently be followed by general class discussion.

Written work should be required only when it is the most economical instrument for attaining mastery or when it is the goal and not a mere means to the goal. In many cases it should be optional. The mechanical writing of answers to questions may benefit pupils with abilities of certain types. However, some pupils, notably the more capable, frequently find such writing a nonessential in preparing for the mastery test and properly rebel against the requirement. Teachers should give careful consideration to this factor when introducing the unit plan. Undoubtedly more of the tests of mastery should be oral tests than is usually the case.

ADULT READING INTERESTS AS RELATED TO SEX AND MARITAL STATUS

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Knowledge of adult reading interests is of particular importance to three groups of people: librarians who are trying to serve the reading needs of the public, educators who are constructing courses of study for the schools, and teachers who are attempting properly to guide the reading of their pupils. Before these groups can take constructive steps toward improving reading interests, they must have information with regard to what people are reading and what they like to read. It is the purpose of this study (1) to present data of this sort with respect to the materials read by nine hundred men and women in Duluth, Minnesota, and (2) to report the influence of sex and marital status on the reading interests of this group.

Investigators who have studied adult reading interests have, in the main, used the following methods of attacking the problem: first, the subjective report, the conclusions of which are based on the general impressions received by the investigator; second, the analysis-of-content method, which determines the amount of space devoted to various types of reading materials and assumes that the materials which receive the most space are those in which people are most interested; third, the supply-and-demand method, which presents conclusions on the basis of circulation of books, magazines, and newspapers; fourth, the observation method, in which the investigator observes persons while they are reading and are at the same time unaware of his presence; and, fifth, the interview or inquiry-form method, in which people are directly questioned with regard to their reading interests.

In the light of the stated purpose of this study, it was decided to make direct contact with large numbers of people. Only in this way would it be possible to obtain data regarding the relation between

reading and such factors as sex and marital status. For this reason the inquiry-form method was selected for this investigation.

The interview seems to have a number of advantages over the written inquiry form. In the first place, persons with whom an investigator makes direct contacts are more likely to respond to questions than are those who receive merely a printed checking list. The very effort required in studying printed questions and in writing answers would cause many adults, especially those with but little education, to refuse to answer the questions asked. Furthermore, the interview should result in receiving more accurate information than would be received by the use of the written inquiry. No matter how carefully an inquiry form is constructed, some of the questions are likely to be misinterpreted, especially in a study of this type in which people of all occupational levels were asked for information. The interview permits the investigator to note difficulties and to explain them to the person being interviewed. In view of these considerations the interview method was used in carrying out this investigation.

As a guide in the interview a tentative inquiry form was constructed on the basis of items included in previous studies and of other factors which seemed to be pertinent. This reading schedule was tried out in interviewing twenty-four men and women. These preliminary interviews gave valuable experience to the investigators and resulted in various changes in the inquiry form.

The interviews, which were made in Duluth, Minnesota, during the months of August and September, 1929, were conducted on the basis of the printed reading schedule, and the responses were recorded in the presence of the persons being questioned. Housewives were visited in their homes; factory workers were interviewed during their noon hours; retail dealers were questioned at their places of business; sailors and stevedores were interviewed at the docks during moments of leisure; groups of laborers were questioned at their boarding-houses; and railroad engineers and firemen were visited at a railroad roundhouse. In order to allay fear regarding the use of the results of the interviews, the investigators did not ask the names of those interviewed. As the interviews were completed, a tally was made of the sex, marital status, occupation, and country of birth of

the persons interviewed. Comparison of these tallies with data for Duluth from the United States census for 1920 permitted the writer to determine whether or not representative groups of individuals were being questioned.

OCCUPATIONS OF THOSE TAKING PART IN THE STUDY

The comparison given in Table I of the occupations of the employed men and women who participated in this investigation with the occupations of all men and women in Duluth reveals significant

TABLE I
OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF MEN AND WOMEN INTERVIEWED COMPARED
WITH OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF ALL MEN AND WOMEN IN DULUTH

Occupational Group*	Percentage of Employed Men in Duluth (34,868)†	Percentage of Employed Men Inter- viewed (510)	Percentage of Employed Women in Duluth (10,034)	Percentage of Employed Women Inter- viewed (154)
Professional	3.5	3.5	8.0	8.5
Semi-professional and managerial . . .	4.0	3.5	6.0	4.5
Clerical and skilled labor	34.5	35.0	36.0	33.0
Semi-skilled trades and minor clerical	18.0	19.0	29.5	28.0
Slightly skilled	23.5	22.5	6.5	13.0
Unskilled labor	16.5	16.5	14.0	13.0

* A description of the occupational classifications may be found in B. Lamar Johnson, "An Investigation of Reading Interests and Habits at Various Age, Educational, and Occupational Levels," pp. 26-28, 406-9. Unpublished Doctor's thesis, College of Education, University of Minnesota, 1930.

† The numbers in parentheses indicate the total number employed in all occupations.

relations. The percentage of the men in the professional group is interpreted as follows: 3.5 per cent of the employed men in Duluth and 3.5 per cent of the 510 men interviewed in this study belong to the professional group. The percentages belonging to the various occupational groups are distributed among those interviewed in a manner similar to the distribution for Duluth as a whole. In the case of both men and women those taking part in this study appear to be a representative sampling of the employed adults of Duluth with respect to the occupational groups to which they belong.

RESULTS

Newspaper reading, which Table II shows was reported by 97 per cent of the men and women, is obviously the most popular form of reading. Magazines are read by 81 per cent of those interviewed, and

only 26 per cent of those interviewed read books during the month for which their reading habits were reported.

Sex appears to have had but little influence on the number of those who reported reading magazines and newspapers. The data indicate, however, that 30 per cent of the women and only 22 per cent of the men read books. This difference suggests that women tend to be readers of books more often than men. The single women read books and magazines more often than the married women. Among the men, however, marital status appears to have had no influence on the percentage of those who read books, magazines, or newspapers.

TABLE II
PERCENTAGES OF 510 MEN AND 390 WOMEN WHO READ BOOKS
MAGAZINES, AND NEWSPAPERS DURING MONTH STUDIED

Group	Number of Cases	Percentage Reading Books	Percentage Reading Magazines	Percentage Reading Newspapers
Married men.....	300	22	79	98
Single men.....	210	22	81	98
All men.....	510	22	80	98
Married women.....	257	24	79	94
Single women.....	133	42	91	99
All women.....	390	30	83	96
All men and women.....	900	26	81	97

The median amounts of time that those taking part in this study reported spending in reading newspapers and magazines, which are given in Table III, reveal significant relations between sex and marital status and time spent in reading. With respect to magazines the one notable difference occurs in the case of the women; the single women reported spending three hours and seven minutes and the married women two hours and six minutes a week in reading magazines. The men reported that they spend forty minutes a day in reading newspapers, and the women indicated that they read the newspaper for twenty-six minutes a day. Marital status bore no relation to the time which the women spend reading newspapers. The married men, however, reported that they read the newspaper forty-four minutes a day, and the single men indicated that they spend only thirty-four minutes a day in reading newspapers.

The names of the books which were reported to have been read by

three or more men and women are found in Table IV. The Bible was read by twenty-nine of the group, and *All Quiet on the Western Front* was reported by twelve men and women. No other book was read by more than four of those interviewed. Twenty-seven books were read by two persons, and 205 books were read by only one per-

TABLE III
MEDIAN AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT IN READING MAGAZINES
AND NEWSPAPERS BY NINE HUNDRED
MEN AND WOMEN

Group	Median Number of Minutes a Week Spent Reading Magazines	Median Number of Minutes a Day Spent Reading Newspapers
Married men.....	132	44
Single men.....	146	34
All men.....	137	40
Married women.....	126	26
Single women.....	187	26
All women.....	147	26
All men and women.....	141	35

TABLE IV
BOOKS READ BY THREE OR MORE MEN AND WOMEN
DURING THE MONTH BEFORE INTERVIEW

Name of Book	Number of Men	Number of Women	Total
Bible.....	13	16	29
All Quiet on the Western Front..	6	6	12
Village Doctor.....	1	3	4
Rose of the World.....	0	4	4
A Lantern in Her Hand.....	1	2	3
Sorrell and Son.....	2	1	3
River Trail.....	1	2	3
Chickie, A Sequel.....	1	2	3
Barberry Bush.....	0	3	3

son. It is significant to note that eight of the nine books most often read, the Bible being the one exception, are books of fiction which have been published since 1922.

The list of authors whose books were read, given in Table V, reveals a range of interests similar to that indicated by the titles of the books read. The works of only ten authors were mentioned as many as five times. Zane Grey was particularly popular among the

men, and Kathleen Norris led in popularity among the women. With the exception of Hardy, the ten authors whose works led in popularity are twentieth-century writers of fiction.

The ten magazines most frequently read by men and women are listed in Table VI. Despite the fact that five magazines (*Saturday*

TABLE V
AUTHORS WHOSE BOOKS WERE READ BY FIVE OR MORE
MEN AND WOMEN DURING THE MONTH
BEFORE INTERVIEW

Author	Number of Men	Number of Women	Total
Grey.....	26	7	33
K. Norris.....	0	17	17
Remarque.....	6	6	12
Van Dine.....	3	5	8
Curwood.....	2	5	7
G. S. Porter.....	0	7	7
Kaye-Smith.....	1	6	7
Hardy.....	0	5	5
J. Lincoln.....	0	5	5
A. Parrish.....	3	2	5

TABLE VI
MAGAZINES MOST FREQUENTLY READ REGULARLY BY MEN AND WOMEN

Magazines Read by Men	Frequency of Mention	Magazines Read by Women	Frequency of Mention
Saturday Evening Post.....	141	Ladies' Home Journal.....	104
Liberty.....	125	Pictorial Review.....	101
Western Story Magazine.....	83	Saturday Evening Post.....	92
Collier's.....	72	American Magazine.....	90
Literary Digest.....	68	Liberty.....	87
True Story Magazine.....	65	Good Housekeeping.....	86
American Magazine.....	59	Collier's.....	73
Ladies' Home Journal.....	47	Woman's Home Companion.....	60
Popular Mechanics.....	40	Cosmopolitan.....	52
Detective Story Magazine.....	38	McCall's Magazine.....	46

Evening Post, *Ladies' Home Journal*, *American Magazine*, *Liberty*, and *Collier's*) rank high in popularity among both the men and the women, there are significant differences between the two lists. The appearance on the men's list of such magazines as *Western Story Magazine*, *True Story Magazine*, and *Detective Story Magazine* would seem to suggest that adventure stories of the type printed in these magazines are more popular among men than among women. Al-

though women indicate interest in general magazines, such as the *American Magazine* and the *Saturday Evening Post*, five of the ten magazines which are most popular among women are publications which cater particularly to women. Of these five, only one (*Ladies' Home Journal*) appears among the ten magazines most popular with men.

A wide range of magazine materials are usually read by the men and the women interviewed in this study, as is shown in Table VII. Short stories are read more often than any other magazine sections by both the men and the women. Second in popularity are con-

TABLE VII
PERCENTAGES OF MEN AND WOMEN WHO USUALLY READ
VARIOUS SECTIONS OF MAGAZINES

SECTIONS OF MAGAZINES	MEN			WOMEN			MEN AND WOMEN
	Single	Married	Total	Single	Married	Total	
Short stories.....	72	56	64	87	69	76	69
Continued stories.....	41	32	36	68	52	57	45
Humorous sections.....	48	41	44	51	41	44	44
Advertisements.....	38	34	36	53	45	48	41
News articles.....	38	46	43	43	36	38	41
Editorials.....	29	40	35	38	26	30	32
Articles about your hobby.....	27	33	30	38	30	33	31
Articles about politics.....	28	46	39	20	19	19	30
Travel articles.....	21	36	30	34	23	27	28
Scientific articles.....	23	30	27	15	13	14	21
Articles about social problems.....	12	18	16	25	14	18	17
Articles about people who have succeeded.....	12	13	12	9	7	8	10

tinued stories. The women reported reading stories more often than the men. Among both the men and the women, stories (both short and continued) are more popular with those who are single than with those who are married. The humorous sections and the advertisements are usually read by more than 40 per cent of those interviewed. Advertisements, however, are read much more frequently by the women than by the men. Editorials are read by approximately one-third of those interviewed; the single men and the married women read editorials less often than do the married men and the single women. Political articles, which are especially popular among the married men, are read by almost 40 per cent of the men but by less than 20 per cent of the women. Travel articles, read by

more than one-fourth of the entire group, are most popular with the married men and the single women. The women reported reading articles about science less frequently than the men. In view of the popularity of the *American Magazine* among both the men and the women, it is somewhat surprising to note that articles about persons who have succeeded are seldom read by those taking part in this study.

The front page is the most popular part of the newspaper. Table VIII shows that 93 per cent of the men and women usually read the

TABLE VIII
PERCENTAGES OF MEN AND WOMEN WHO USUALLY READ
VARIOUS SECTIONS OF NEWSPAPERS

SECTIONS OF NEWSPAPERS	MEN			WOMEN			MEN AND WOMEN
	Single	Married	Total	Single	Married	Total	
Front page.....	92	96	95	93	90	91	93
News of your city.....	84	87	86	85	78	80	83
Accident news.....	82	80	81	79	75	76	79
Comic section.....	82	78	79	77	76	76	78
News inside paper.....	71	82	78	77	76	76	77
Crime news.....	74	71	72	62	59	60	67
National news.....	64	76	71	63	58	56	65
Editorial page.....	44	71	59	51	55	54	57
Foreign news.....	46	63	56	45	43	43	51
Advertisements.....	27	41	35	72	68	69	50
Sports page.....	76	60	67	20	18	22	43
Society news.....	15	16	15	72	58	63	36
Home page.....	12	13	13	42	61	54	31
Financial section.....	20	36	29	9	13	12	22
Children's page.....	7	11	9	16	25	22	15
Serial story.....	14	8	10	15	22	19	14
Horoscope.....	9	10	9	22	15	17	13
Book reviews.....	11	12	12	12	12	12	12
Puzzles.....	14	7	10	15	13	12	12
Other sections.....	4	6	5	6	9	8	7

front page. As would be expected, happenings close to home have more news interest than events occurring in distant places. "News of your city" is read by 83 per cent of the group and is second in popularity only to the front page; national news is read by 65 per cent of those taking part in the study; and foreign news is read by 51 per cent of those interviewed. Accident news, the comic section, and news inside the paper are usually read by over three-fourths of those taking part in this study. Crime news, which is more frequently read by the men than by the women, is less popular among both men and women than is accident news. Over half the group re-

ported that they usually read the editorial page, editorials being most popular with the married men. The married men also read foreign news more frequently than the members of any other group. The women are much more interested in the following parts of the paper than the men: advertisements, society news, the home page, the children's page, and the serial story. The men, however, read the sports page and the financial section of the paper more often than the women.

Four hundred and eighty-five men and women answered the question "Where did you get the last book you read?" That the public

TABLE IX
PERCENTAGES OF 485 MEN AND WOMEN WHO SECURED THE
LAST BOOKS READ FROM VARIOUS SOURCES

SOURCE	MEN			WOMEN			MEN AND WOMEN (485)
	Single (115)*	Married (152)	Total (267)	Single (89)	Married (129)	Total (218)	
Public library.....	30	39	35	43	44	44	39
Borrowed from a friend..	27	17	21	25	28	27	23
Purchased.....	23	21	22	13	9	11	17
Had it at home.....	11	17	14	12	12	12	13
Gift.....	5	3	4	1	3	2	3
Circulating library.....	1	3	2	5	4	3	3
School library.....	3	0	1	0	0	0	1
Other sources.....	0	1	1	1	0	1	1

* The numbers in parentheses indicate the number who specified the sources from which they obtained the last books read.

library is an important factor in the reading of men and women is indicated in Table IX by the fact that 39 per cent of this group secured the last books they had read from the public library. Other popular sources were: "borrowed from a friend," "purchased," and "had it at home." The women borrowed books from the public library more often than the men; the men, on the other hand, purchased books more frequently than the women. The married men indicated the public library as a source of books more than the single men, but the single men borrow from friends more than the married men.

Twelve methods of selecting books were reported by the 478 men and women who answered the question: "How did you select the last book you read?" Table X shows that the recommendation of friends was the method used in selecting books by almost 30 per cent of those answering the question. Convenience, interest in a subject,

seeing a book at the public library, and knowledge of the author are other methods of book selection which were frequently mentioned. The men, particularly the married men, appear to have placed more reliance on the subject of a book than the women, but the women

TABLE X
PERCENTAGES OF 478 MEN AND WOMEN USING VARIOUS
METHODS OF SELECTING LAST BOOKS READ

METHOD OF SELECTION	MEN			WOMEN			MEN AND WOMEN (478)
	Single (112)*	Married (150)	Total (262)	Single (88)	Married (128)	Total (216)	
Recommended by friend.....	28	25	26	26	35	31	29
Convenience.....	20	20	20	17	20	19	19
Subject of special interest.....	12	25	20	9	12	11	16
Saw book at public library.....	16	6	11	17	15	16	13
Knowledge of author.....	7	9	8	22	12	16	12
Saw book in a store.....	6	3	4	1	1	1	3
Read review of book.....	2	4	3	2	1	1	2
Saw movie based on book.....	3	1	2	1	1	1	2
Recommended by librarian.....	0	3	2	0	2	1	1
Book club.....	3	0	1	3	0	1	1
Saw book advertised.....	1	2	1	1	0	1	1
Other methods.....	2	2	2	1	1	1	1

* The numbers in parentheses indicate the number who described the methods they used in selecting the last books they had read.

TABLE XI
PERCENTAGES OF 866 MEN AND WOMEN WHO USE
PUBLIC LIBRARY

	Number Answering Question	Percentage Using Library	Percentage Not Using Library
Single men.....	196	31	69
Married men.....	291	28	72
All men.....	487	29	71
Single women.....	130	49	51
Married women.....	249	31	69
All women.....	379	37	63
All men and women.....	866	33	67

indicated that they more frequently chose books on the basis of their knowledge of the authors than did the men.

Statements indicating whether or not they use the public library were received from 866 men and women. In Table XI it is shown that one-third of the entire group use the public library, the women

using it more than the men and the single women more than the married women. The chief reasons given for not using the library were "no time" and "not interested." These two reasons were given by about three-fourths of those not using the library. Thirteen per cent stated that they do not use the library because they have books available without going to the public library. Six per cent failed to give any reason for not using the library, and 8.5 per cent indicated a number of miscellaneous reasons.

SUMMARY

1. Approximately one-fourth of the men and women interviewed in this study reported reading books; four-fifths read magazines; and over 95 per cent read newspapers.

2. The single women read more books and magazines than the members of any other group.

3. The women read books more often than the men, but the men spend more time in reading newspapers than the women.

4. Books of modern fiction are the most popular type of books among both the men and the women.

5. There are very marked differences in the reading interests of men and women as indicated by the books and magazines read by this group and by the sections of magazines and newspapers in which they are most interested.

6. The recommendation of friends is the most important factor in selecting books to be read.

7. Nearly 40 per cent of the 485 men and women who remembered where they had secured the last books they read indicated the public library as the source from which they had obtained the books.

8. The public library is used by one-third of those taking part in this study.

9. Lack of interest is the chief reason given for not using the public library.

Conclusions and recommendations from the evidence presented will be presented as part of an article on "Children's Reading Interests as Related to Sex and Grade in School," which will appear in a subsequent issue of the *School Review*. The conclusions will be more apparent after comparison has been made of the reading interests of children and adults.

THE PARTICIPATION OF TEACHERS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

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The participation of teachers in the administration of schools is not an innovation in educational practice. Some form of teacher participation in administration has existed as long as administrative positions have existed. Organized participation, however, has come about within the last quarter of a century. Therefore, the problem resolves itself not into the question of whether teachers should and do participate in administration but into the task of learning to what extent and in what form teachers should and do participate in educational administration.

Studies and investigations having to do with teacher participation are limited in number. Updegraff and Sears each made a noteworthy contribution in this field. In 1922 Updegraff reported the cities where formal organizations of teachers, such as teachers' councils, existed.¹ In 1921 Sears reported that 46 of 131 cities had no such teachers' organizations or councils, while 85 cities had one or more teachers' organizations, 70 of which were participating in the administration of schools.² No comprehensive studies have been published since those of Updegraff and Sears. There is need for more recent information concerning teacher participation. Both Updegraff and Sears placed emphasis on organized participation. The extent to which and form in which teachers participate in an unorganized way should be investigated. Then, too, there is need of information concerning participation in small schools. Practically all data available concern participation in the larger schools.

¹ Harlan Updegraff, "Report of the Committee on Participation of Teachers in Management," *Elementary School Journal*, XXII (June, 1922), 783-88.

² J. B. Sears, "Teacher Participation in Public School Administration," *American School Board Journal*, LXIII (October, 1921), 29-33, 113-14.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The present study is an investigation of the extent to which and the form in which teachers in small city high schools (cities with populations of 2,500-10,000) in Missouri do and should participate in the administration. No formal organized teacher participation existed in any of the cities studied. The study has been limited to the following nine administrative functions which in previous studies were found to occur most frequently and which were recommended in the approximate order given as desirable features in teacher participation: (1) selecting textbooks, (2) disciplining pupils, (3) making the course of study, (4) preparing the salary schedule, (5) arranging for extension courses, (6) handling truants and delinquents, (7) making the daily program, (8) making the school calendar, and (9) advancing and promoting pupils.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

Early in January, 1931, questionnaires were sent to 450 high-school teachers in fifty-five small city high schools in Missouri. Usable replies were received from 243 of these teachers. In cities where junior high schools existed, the questionnaire was sent to senior high school teachers only. The nature of the questionnaire and the types of responses required may be inferred directly from the column headings and the categories in the left-hand columns of the three tables accompanying this article.

Questionnaires were sent to approximately eight teachers in each of the fifty-five high schools. The general plan of selecting these teachers was based on the subject taught. In so far as possible, one teacher of each subject was selected. Part-time teachers, special teachers, and librarians were omitted in every case. If a teacher taught more than one subject, he might be selected for any one of the subjects that he taught. No preference was given to teachers of any one subject. In an accompanying letter the teachers were asked to check the extent to which and form in which they participated in the respective administrative functions.

In order that the validity of the teachers' replies to the questionnaire might be checked, a copy of the questionnaire was sent to each of the 110 administrative heads (principal and superintendent) in

these 55 high schools. One hundred and three usable replies were received. The questionnaires were not sent to the administrators until all the replies had been received from the teachers. Over 90 per cent of the replies of the teachers and the replies of the administrative heads concerning participation in practice were identical.

The replies from the teachers and the administrative heads also indicated their opinions of the extent to which and form in which teachers should participate in administration. As a means of further substantiating the extent to which teacher participation in administration is desirable, an abbreviated form of the questionnaire was sent to fifty professors of school administration in March, 1931, asking their opinions of the extent to which and form in which teachers should participate in these nine functions. These professors of school administration were scattered throughout the country, and most of them were located in the leading colleges and universities of the country. It is worth while to mention that opinions were received from practically all the writers of textbooks in this field. With a few exceptions, the criteria for selecting the professors of school administration were their reputations as writers of textbooks in the field of school administration. Others were selected because of their national prominence or because they were located in the state studied or in neighboring states. Usable replies were received from forty-seven of the fifty professors of school administration.

INTERPRETATION OF DATA

The data in Tables I, II, and III justify the following interpretations.

1. *Selecting textbooks.*—Practically all teachers have some administrative responsibility in selecting textbooks, and two-thirds of them have complete individual responsibility for the function. A small percentage of teachers are appointed to committees for this function, but no specific type of committee is predominant. The consensus of opinion is that teachers should be either individually responsible or co-operatively responsible as members of committees for this function.

2. *Disciplining pupils.*—The typical high-school teacher has complete control of disciplining his own pupils and classes. However, a small number of high-school teachers are restricted to committee

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS PARTICIPATING AND PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS, SCHOOL OFFICERS, AND PROFESSORS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION BELIEVING TEACHERS SHOULD PARTICIPATE IN THE RESPECTIVE ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

EXTENT AND FORM OF PARTICIPATION IN FUNCTION	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS PARTICIPAT- ING	PERCENTAGE BELIEVING TEACHERS SHOULD PARTICIPATE		
		Teachers	Superintendents and Principals	Professors of School Administration
Selecting textbooks:				
Complete responsibility.....	62	68	34	6
Offer suggestions.....	21	22	12	20
Committee member.....	15	10	54	65
No participation.....	2	0	0	0
Disciplining pupils:				
Complete responsibility.....	71	75	87	91
Offer suggestions.....	20	18	11	7
Committee member.....	4	5	2	2
No participation.....	5	1	0	0
Making the course of study:				
Complete responsibility.....	61	50	21	6
Offer suggestions.....	27	30	27	18
Committee member.....	10	20	52	76
No participation.....	2	0	0	0
Preparing the salary schedule:				
Complete responsibility.....	0	5	1	0
Offer suggestions.....	4	20	54	34
Committee member.....	2	10	15	15
No participation.....	94	50	30	51
Arranging for extension courses:				
Complete responsibility.....	26	31	16	2
Offer suggestions.....	47	37	46	50
Committee member.....	3	30	38	44
No participation.....	24	2	0	4
Handling truants and delinquents:				
Complete responsibility.....	23	50	20	10
Offer suggestions.....	27	37	78	71
Committee member.....	5	10	2	4
No participation.....	45	3	0	6
Making the daily program:				
Complete responsibility.....	79	79	57	59
Offer suggestions.....	10	19	34	17
Committee member.....	4	2	2	22
No participation.....	7	0	7	2
Making the school calendar:				
Complete responsibility.....	1	2	0	0
Offer suggestions.....	27	13	63	58
Committee member.....	8	72	34	23
No participation.....	64	13	3	19
Advancing and promoting pupils:				
Complete responsibility.....	73	72	78	63
Offer suggestions.....	15	17	21	21
Committee member.....	6	11	1	16
No participation.....	6	0	0	0

membership and to the mere offering of suggestions in the exercise of this function. A few high-school teachers indicated that the administration provides complete control in disciplining their pupils.

TABLE II

PERSONS BY WHOM TEACHERS ARE APPOINTED TO COMMITTEES DEALING WITH ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS AND TYPES OF COMMITTEES APPOINTED

FUNCTION	PERCENTAGE APPOINTED BY PRINCIPALS AND SUPERINTENDENTS	PERCENTAGE APPOINTED BY TEACHERS	PERCENTAGE OF EACH TYPE OF COMMITTEE				
			Standing Committee	Temporary Committee	Special Committee for This Purpose Only	General Committee for All Functions	Subject Committee
Selecting textbooks.....	83	17	19	29	36	11	5
Disciplining pupils.....	67	33					
Making course of study for own subjects.....	88	12	36	24	32	4	4
Making course of study for own classes.....	84	16					
Making the daily program	60	40	60	20	20	0	0
Making the school calendar.....	85	15	40	20	40	0	0
Advancing and promoting pupils.....	72	28	86	0	14	0	0

TABLE III

METHODS USED BY TEACHERS IN OFFERING SUGGESTIONS WITH REGARD TO ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

FUNCTION	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS OFFERING SUGGESTIONS			
	When Requested	When Not Requested	Question Box Provided	Effort Made by Administration To Have Teachers Offer Suggestions
Selecting textbooks.....	29	6	0	65
Disciplining pupils.....	27	17	2	54
Making course of study for own classes	47	2	0	51
Arranging for extension courses.....	32	0	8	60
Handling truants and delinquents.....	0	38	10	52
Making the daily program.....	21	4	0	75
Making the school calendar.....	22	4	0	74
Advancing and promoting pupils.....	21	0	0	79

It is the consensus of opinion of all groups that high-school teachers should have complete responsibility for the correction, control, and management of their pupils and classes.

3. *Making the course of study.*—Practically all the high-school teachers participate in making courses of study as outlines for the content of the subjects in their classes. However, more than a third of the teachers are limited in their authority to administer this function. Such limitation usually confines the participation to the offering of suggestions and to serving on a committee when requested by the administration. Many teachers feel that such limitation is unnecessary, and they desire complete responsibility for this function, while the majority of school officials and professors of school administration believe that the activities of teachers along this line should be restricted to committee membership.

4. *Preparing salary schedules.*—In practically every case the administration has complete control of constructing salary schedules. Teachers and professors of school administration agree in opinion with this practice. However, a majority of the administrators believe that teachers should offer suggestions.

5. *Arranging for extension courses.*—It is the general practice of teachers to offer suggestions and to exercise complete responsibility in arranging for extension courses. However, it is the consensus of opinion that teachers should offer suggestions and serve on committees in the exercise of this function. Practically one-fourth of the teachers have no choice in the matter of extension courses, the administration providing complete control. The majority of teachers are privileged to offer suggestions concerning the exercise of this function only when requested.

6. *Handling truants and delinquents.*—Practice is approximately equally divided between some type of teacher participation and complete responsibility on the part of the administration in handling truants and delinquents. Most teachers feel that they should be completely responsible, while the administrators and professors of school administration favor suggestions by teachers. Scarcely any of the teachers, administrators, or professors of school administration believe that the administration should have complete control of truants and delinquents. It is the consensus of opinion that teachers and school administrators are and should be mutually dependent on each other in the solution of problems arising among truants and delinquents.

7. *Making daily programs.*—Teachers generally have complete individual responsibility for making their daily programs, while all groups agree in opinion with this practice. There seems to be no tendency for administrators to limit the jurisdiction of teachers in constructing a plan of work to guide the teaching time for a day provided the daily program is in keeping with the working schedule of the school unit.

8. *Making the school calendar.*—The administration usually exercises complete control in making the school calendar, while teachers feel that it should be done by committee action. Administrators and professors of school administration are of the opinion that teachers should offer suggestions. An appreciable number of teachers are requested to serve on committees and to offer suggestions in the construction of the school calendar. However, the administration controls the appointment of the committees and probably influences the suggestions offered.

9. *Advancing and promoting pupils.*—The large majority of teachers have complete individual responsibility in advancing and promoting their own pupils, while all groups agree in opinion with this practice. Although a majority of all groups are of this opinion, a small percentage of the administrators allow the teachers no jurisdiction in determining the promotion or failure of their pupils.

10. *Committee membership.*—When the administration places teachers on various committees for the exercise of the respective functions in lieu of giving them complete responsibility and jurisdiction, such committees are usually appointed and controlled by the principals and superintendents. Only in a few cases are such committees appointed by teachers or other committees. The typical committee is a standing committee which is responsible to the principal or superintendent and which has very little power to act.

11. *Offering suggestions.*—Very few teachers offer suggestions when not requested. A larger percentage of teachers offer suggestions when not requested in handling truants and delinquents than in any other function. In the process of disciplining their own pupils 17 per cent of the high-school teachers offer suggestions when not requested.

THE GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

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But few surveys of the geographical distribution of high-school graduates have been made. Dolch¹ in 1925 reported such a study for a small rural high school in northern Illinois, and Whitlow² in 1931 reported a similar study for Laramie, Wyoming. The importance of this question cannot well be overemphasized, since it involves the question of curriculum-making and the whole problem of school finance. The purpose of this article is to report objective data for yet another school in a community of another type than either of those in the two studies cited.

The community considered is neither open country nor city. It is classified as a village, and its population has varied from 768 in 1880 to 1,102 in 1910 and back again to less than 900 in 1930. This village is situated in central Nebraska and has maintained a high school since 1888. The community is not a community of transients. The children graduating from the high school are the children of families engaged in business in the town or of families located on farms near the town. The village offers few opportunities for employment save as a hired man on a farm or as a hired girl in a home and, occasionally, as a clerk in a store or as a stenographer in an office.

The period considered in the study includes the years 1888-1923. It is thought that the influence of home and college might invalidate the figures for the years immediately following high-school graduation. This study includes 422 graduates. Twenty-nine of the graduates were deceased, and the places of residence of eighteen were

¹ E. W. Dolch, "Geographical and Occupational Distribution of Graduates of a Rural High School," *School Review*, XXXIII (June, 1925), 413-21.

² C. M. Whitlow, "The Geographical Distribution of High-School Graduates," *School Review*, XXXIX (March, 1931), 213-16.

unknown. It is safe to assume that these eighteen were not in the home district. Table I shows the geographical distribution of the graduates in 1929, when this study was made. The divisions used in this table are those of the United States census. The East North Central Division includes only those graduates who live neither in the home district nor in Nebraska.

TABLE I
GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF GRADUATES OF EACH
FIVE-YEAR PERIOD FROM 1888 TO 1923

LOCATION IN 1929	NUMBER OF GRADUATES						
	1888-92	1893-97	1898-1902	1903-8	1909-13	1914-18	1919-23
School district.....	0	5	4	9	5	14	25
Nebraska outside school district.....	10	5	17	21	19	45	57
West North Central Division.....	2	5	1	2	6	6	3
East North Central Division.....	2	6	3	4	1	2	7
East South Central Division.....	0	0	0	0	1	0	3
West South Central Division.....	0	2	2	1	1	1	2
Mountain Division.....	2	3	3	2	6	6	9
Pacific Division.....	6	0	6	3	5	6	5
Middle Atlantic Division.....	1	1	2	4	2	2	1
New England Division.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
South Atlantic Division.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hawaiian Islands.....	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Unknown.....	1	2	3	0	2	3	7
Deceased.....	4	2	9	2	4	6	2
Total.....	28	31	50	48	52	92	121
							422

It is interesting to note that only 62, or 16 per cent, of the living graduates were located in the local district in 1929. One hundred and seventy-four, or 47 per cent, were living in the home state but outside the district, while 37 per cent were scattered throughout the United States. Some graduates were found in every geographical division except two—the New England and the South Atlantic Divisions. The West North Central Division, the East North Central Division, the Mountain Division, and the Pacific Division were favorites with the local graduates. The East South Central Division

seems to have been gaining favor in later years, three graduates of 1919-23 being found there.

The small number of graduates remaining in the local district is significant. During the first fifteen years of the period concerned in this study, more graduates died than remained in the district boundaries. Dolch found in his Illinois study that 41.28 per cent of the graduates had remained in the local district, while Whitlow reported that 42.74 per cent had remained in Laramie. These figures render even more significant the fact that only 16 per cent of the graduates of the central Nebraska district remained in the home community.

Dolch says that, in the light of the geographical distribution of graduates in Illinois, education may not be so much of a local problem as has been thought, and Whitlow raises the same point. The data for the schools studied by these two men covered a comparatively short period of time when compared with the data for the Nebraska school, and both studies included the period of time immediately following graduation. These two facts, in the writer's opinion, have badly skewed the figures in favor of the local district. All three studies show a strong trend toward a wide geographical distribution.

If these facts are a fair sampling of what is taking place in the central portion of the United States, a readjustment of practices in curriculum-making and financing should be accomplished. Since 84 per cent of the graduates of the Nebraska village settle in other parts of the state and nation, it would seem no more than just that the state and nation should help formulate the policies of this central Nebraska school and also that the state and nation should help finance the school. As only 16 per cent of the graduates remain in the local district, 47 per cent remain in Nebraska but not in the district, and 37 per cent leave the state entirely, the responsibility for educating the children in this central Nebraska town should not bear so heavily on the local district as it does at the present time. In fact, if the rule were established that the community benefited should pay in proportion to the benefit received, less than one-fifth of the cost of educating the local children should be borne by the local district. Almost one-half the total cost should be borne by

the state as a unit, and the rest of the expense, almost two-fifths of the total, should be borne by the nation at large.

From the standpoint of curriculum-making, these findings are also of importance. If high-school graduates are to be scattered over so wide a territory, the value of local influences on curriculums should be minimized. Few, if any, opportunities for local employment exist in this village for the graduates of the high school except in the field of agriculture. Hence, agriculture is taught in the high school. Yet agricultural methods are naturally affected by the locality, and the methods used in Nebraska are far different from the methods pursued in the southern states or along the Atlantic seacoast. Just what are the vocational histories of the graduates of such a school as the one studied would throw some light on the all-important problem of what subjects should be taught in local high schools and how they should be taught.

SUMMARY

1. An average of less than one out of six graduates of the central Nebraska high school studied remain in the local district.
2. Forty-seven per cent of the graduates left the district but remained in the state.
3. Graduates of this central Nebraska high school now live in every geographical division of the United States, except in the New England and South Atlantic divisions.
4. The geographical distribution of the graduates presents a strong argument for additional co-operation of state and nation with this central Nebraska community in sharing the responsibilities of its educational program.

HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES' ESTIMATES OF THEIR HIGH-SCHOOL ANNUALS

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The value of a high-school annual as an extra-curriculum activity in high school has been attacked by some persons and praised by others. Certainly one point of view which should be taken into account in making an appraisal of the value of the annual is that of the high-school graduate. The *Virginia Teacher* recently carried an article by R. R. Maplesden in which the high-school annual is championed with more than ordinary fervor, the principal contention being that the annual is valuable as a memory book after the pupil graduates.¹ The report given in the present article represents an effort to test the validity of this contention by learning the attitudes of the graduates of one high school toward their annual. The Garfield High School, Terre Haute, Indiana, was chosen for this purpose.

Only one practical device, the questionnaire, was available for learning the graduates' attitudes. A questionnaire containing eight questions over the name of the principal of the school was sent on a return post card to 1,369 graduates. The statement introducing the questionnaire read, "It is not our purpose to encourage you to take a position of high praise of the annual, and it is not our purpose to encourage you to take a position of severe criticism. We only hope that you will give us unbiased and correct answers."

The addresses of graduates were obtained through the co-operation of the Garfield Alumni Association, the registrar of Rose Polytechnic Institute, and pupils in the Garfield High School. Questionnaires were mailed to all graduates of the school for whom recent

¹ R. R. Maplesden, "Why Should Our School Get Out an Annual?" *Virginia Teacher*, XII (March, 1931), 70-72.

addresses were known except those who had graduated in 1913, 1918, and 1923, when the school published no annuals. The complete distributions of the graduates of the years included, the number to whom questionnaires were mailed, the number and percentage of usable replies returned, and data with regard to percentages are shown in Table I.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES MAILED AND OF REPLIES RETURNED

YEAR OF GRADUATION	NUMBER OF GRADUATES	NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES MAILED	USABLE REPLIES		
			Number	Percentage of Graduates Replying	Percentage of Questionnaires Returned
1914.....	62	39	21	33.9	53.8
1915.....	66	29	9	13.6	31.0
1916.....	107	57	19	17.8	33.3
1917.....	108	52	15	13.9	28.8
1919.....	112	53	15	13.4	28.3
1920.....	87	52	16	18.4	30.8
1921.....	96	56	16	16.7	28.6
1922.....	121	78	29	24.0	37.2
1924.....	154	116	47	30.5	40.5
1925.....	155	132	33	21.3	25.0
1926.....	131	130	47	35.9	36.2
1927.....	156	156	50	32.1	32.1
1928.....	136	136	50	36.8	36.8
1929.....	159	159	65	40.9	40.9
1930.....	124	124	48	38.7	38.7
Total.....	1,774	1,369	480	27.1	35.1

When the data were being tabulated, the replies from the men and those from the women were kept separate, the expectation being that the women would show a stronger tendency toward sentimentalism. However, the nature of the replies from the two sexes differed little, and in the consideration of the replies to most of the questions no attention is given to sex differences. Replies from members of the different classes were also tabulated separately, but here, too, little difference was found in most of the questions. A final distinction was made in tabulating the replies from members of the editorial staffs and the replies from the rest of the graduates. No differences were found except in answer to Question 8. In the following consideration of the questions and their answers the distinctions just mentioned are only rarely considered.

In Question 1 ("Did you get a copy of the *Benedictus* in 19—?") a blank space was left in which was written the year a graduate finished high school. As the blanks were filled in before the questionnaires were mailed, the replies could be classified by years with little trouble. The answers to this question were almost unanimous. They were: "Yes," 477; "No," 2; not answered, 1.

Question 2 ("If so, do you still have your copy?") was prepared with the thought that the annual is an unworthy high-school enterprise and that few of the graduates keep their copies for a great length of time. If the copies are not preserved, they can have no value as memory books. The answers to this question were entirely contrary to expectation. They were: "Yes," 474; "No," 3; not answered, 3.

Question 3 ("If you do not still have your copy, how long has it been since you last had it?") was answered by only a few graduates since practically all the graduates still had their copies. The question, therefore, has no value for this investigation.

Question 4 read, "If you still have it, where do you keep it? (Answer by naming the place in the house, such as bookcase, attic, library table, etc., where you keep it.)" The place where the copies were kept was asked in order to learn whether the books were accessible for use. Obviously, an annual cannot have much value as a memory book if it is stored in an attic. The suggestion of possible places was made after the question in order to prevent such answers as "at home." The replies show that the copies are kept in places of dignity and accessibility by most graduates. The places indicated are: bookcase, bookrack, or library, 299; library table or end table, 83; cedar chest or trunk, 26; desk, 16; attic, 7; closet, 6; drawer, 5; magazine rack, 5; piano bench, 4; bedroom table, 4; music cabinet, 3; dresser, 3; storeroom, 2; owner's room, 2; radio cabinet, 1; school, 1; mantel, 1; with personal papers, 1; basement, 1; no answer, 10.

Question 5 ("About how many times during the past year have you looked through your copy?") was answered indefinitely by several graduates. The median number of times stated by the members of the fifteen graduating classes of 1914-30 are given in Table II. This table indicates that the graduates of the most recent class make most frequent references to their annuals and that graduates

of classes farther back than three or four years indicate practically no differences in the frequency of use of the annual.

Question 6 ("If you have not looked through your copy many times recently, how long has it been since you made it a practice to do so frequently?") was answered by only one hundred graduates. Consequently, when these replies are divided among fifteen classes,

TABLE II
MEDIAN NUMBER OF TIMES IN A YEAR GRADUATES OF
CLASSES OF 1914-30 HAD LOOKED THROUGH
HIGH-SCHOOL ANNUALS

Year of Graduation	Median Number of Times
1914.....	1.5
1915.....	0.5
1916.....	3.0
1917.....	2.0
1919.....	2.0
1920.....	3.0
1921.....	2.0
1922.....	3.0
1924.....	3.0
1925.....	3.0
1926.....	3.0
1927.....	4.0
1928.....	5.0
1929.....	7.0
1930.....	12.0

not enough cases are found in any one class group to give a significant measure of central tendency.

In answer to Question 7 ("I do not wish to buy your copy, but, if I should offer you cash for your copy, how much money would you ask for it?") 354 graduates gave no figure, simply stating that they would not sell their copies. Thirty-five gave no answer, and twenty-three others made indefinite answers. From the remaining sixty-eight answers no significant conclusions can be drawn. The figures ranged all the way from "nothing" and "what I paid for it" to a figure of \$5,000, the latter evidently being given in a gush of thoughtless enthusiasm. The median is \$10.00, and the medians for most of the class groups are also \$10.00. Although the medians for the class

groups are not significant because of the small number of cases on which they are based, there is an indication that graduates in recent classes place just as high monetary values on their annuals as do the older graduates. An observation of relative unimportance is that boys gave definite figures much more frequently than did girls. The only conclusion to be drawn from the answers to this question is that the graduates do not wish to sell their high-school annuals.

Question 8 read, "In what way, if any, do you find your copy of great value to you?" At no place in the questionnaire were the terms "memory" and "memory book" used; nevertheless the graduates used these terms repeatedly. The following answers (the frequencies also being given) are typical: memories, recollections, 246; record of high-school life, friends, teachers, etc., 22; reminiscence, retrospect, 16; recreation, pleasure, entertainment, 15; relive high-school days, 14; keepsake, 14; pictures, 11; summary of best part of life, 5; sentiment, 3; part of childhood days, 1; only definite or tangible thing left of high-school days, 1. This group of replies, numbering 348, far outnumbers any other. The second largest group of answers given in reply to this question, while resembling the first group, relates to the value of the annual as a reference book. This group, numbering 154, includes the following replies: to look up classmates, recall names and faces, 56; reference on graduates and classmates, 48; reminder, 36; memorandum of high-school days, 6; identification, 4; to compare what people looked like then with what they look like now, 3; basis for settling arguments, 1. A small group of answers came from graduates who had helped edit the annual and who gave values growing out of that fact. They include: prize as a personal achievement, 3; memories of staff work, 3; the value of making the book, 1. A similar statement came from a girl in the 1914 class who was not on the staff; she said she was proud of the "Benny" because her class had started it. Nine people stated that to them the annual had no value. Three of the nine told why the annual was of no value to them. One said that "it was just a big expense," another said that college interests had superseded high-school interests, and the third stated that his interests lay in the future instead of the past. Other types of replies and their frequencies are: gauge of progress, 6; to show to friends, 5; challenges ambition and helps keep one

young and ambitious, 5; it offers consolation, 2; "it gives one a big laugh," 1; "to prove to husband that I was once young and beautiful," 1. Twenty-five did not answer, and 7 gave indefinite answers. Some replies gave more than one value; consequently, the total does not equal 480.

CONCLUSIONS

The evidence secured from the graduates of the one high school considered in this investigation is in favor of the high-school annual. Practically all the graduates had their annuals and wanted to keep them. The graduates kept the books in accessible places for ready reference, but they made frequent references to the annual only during the first few years after graduating. The commonest values which the graduates stated they found in their annuals were that of a memory book and that of a reference book. It is true that these conclusions are based on replies from only a little over one-fourth of the graduates in the fifteen classes considered and a little more than one-third of those to whom questionnaires were mailed. However, the evidence is so one-sided in favor of the annual that the validity of the conclusions can hardly be questioned. Answers of the same types were given by the graduates in all the fifteen classes and by the graduates of both sexes. (The replies from the different sexes were also equitably divided, the number from the boys being 220, the number from the girls being 257, and three others being unsigned.) The evidence supplied by the graduates of this one high school seems conclusive. It would be well to make a similar canvass of the attitudes of the graduates of other high schools.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FIRST AND FINAL MARKS

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During the preparation of final semester reports the writer has often overheard teachers express regret that certain pupils had failed. In many cases the teachers have been of the opinion that the failures were due to the fact that pupils had been given good marks the first six weeks, had then become overconfident or lazy, and had consequently dropped down to failure during the remainder of the semester. The teachers implied that, if lower marks had been given at first, the pupils would have been stimulated to do better work and consequently would not have failed. The writer has made a comparative study of marks given for the first six weeks and of final marks in an effort to learn whether high first marks tend to become low final marks and low first marks tend to become high final marks. The marks of the boys and girls were studied separately.

Data for the study were obtained from the permanent records of the Isaac C. Elston Senior High School, Michigan City, Indiana, for the two semesters of the school year 1930-31. Fractional marks of less than one-half credit, such as marks in physical training and glee club, were not included. Only complete records were included, that is, only the records of pupils who had been given both a mark for the first six weeks and a final mark. In this way pupils who had entered late and pupils who had dropped out before the end of the school year were eliminated, these two classes offering problems of their own. A total of 6,087 marks given by 36 different teachers were compared, 3,156 for boys and 2,931 for girls.¹ The letters used in the marking system and their ratings are as follows: A, superior; B, good; C, average; D, poor; E, failure. The first mark counts approximately one-fourth in making up the final semester mark. The

¹ For the school year under study the average attendance was 822, 436 boys and 386 girls.

other two six-week marks and the final-examination mark constitute the other three-fourths of the final mark.

From Table I and Figure 1 it is seen that the distributions of the first and final marks yield no great differences. The numbers of A's and D's increased slightly, while the numbers of B's, C's, and E's de-

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTIONS OF MARKS GIVEN FOR FIRST SIX WEEKS
AND OF FINAL MARKS

MARK	BOYS		GIRLS		ALL PUPILS	
	First Marks	Final Marks	First Marks	Final Marks	First Marks	Final Marks
A.....	227	245	285	327	512	572
B.....	570	560	723	669	1,293	1,229
C.....	979	956	907	940	1,946	1,896
D.....	976	1,069	687	752	1,663	1,821
E.....	404	326	269	243	673	569
Total....	3,156	3,156	2,931	2,931	6,087	6,087

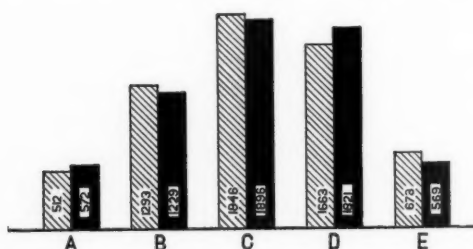


FIG. 1.—Distribution of marks given for first six weeks (shaded bars) and of final marks (black bars).

creased. The same trend is found in the case of both boys and girls. It is to be noted that the distributions are skewed toward the lower marks, this fact being a possible expression of the belief on the part of the teachers that low marks are stimulating. However, the mere distribution of the marks does not indicate whether given marks remained the same, were raised, or were lowered.

The data in Table II were compiled to show the number of marks remaining the same and the number rising or falling one, two, three,

and four letters. The same data are shown graphically in the left-hand set of bars in Figure 2. In this figure percentages of 0.2 and less are not shown. The outstanding fact is that the percentages of

TABLE II
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF INITIAL MARKS RAISED
MARKS LOWERED, AND MARKS SHOWING NO
CHANGE AT FINAL MARKING PERIOD

CHANGE IN MARKS	BOYS		GIRLS		ALL PUPILS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Marks raised:						
One letter.....	610	19.3	524	17.9	1,134	18.6
Two letters.....	45	1.4	28	1.0	73	1.2
Three letters.....	2	0.1	0	0.0	2	0.0
Four letters.....	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total.....	657	20.8	552	18.8	1,209	19.9
Marks lowered:						
One letter.....	504	16.0	459	15.7	963	15.8
Two letters.....	49	1.6	49	1.7	98	1.6
Three letters.....	5	0.2	2	0.1	7	0.1
Four letters.....	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total.....	558	17.7	510	17.4	1,068	17.5
No change.....	1,941	61.5	1,869	63.8	3,810	62.6

Per Cent

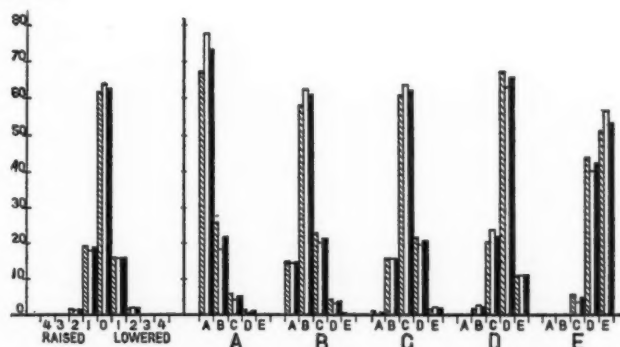


FIG. 2.—Showing, at the left, percentage of initial marks raised, percentage of marks lowered, and percentage showing no change in the case of boys (shaded bars), in the case of girls (white bars), and in the case of all pupils (black bars), and showing, at the right, percentage of each initial letter mark changing to each of the other marks.

marks which were the same at the end of the semester as at the end of the first six weeks are very high. The girls showed a slightly greater tendency to earn the same marks than did the boys. These data would seem to indicate that teachers are able to form reliable estimates of pupils' work early in the year and that in most cases the quality of work does not change. A person engaged in another profession who happened to see these data suggested that the proper conclusion is that a teacher forms an opinion of a pupil early in the course and does not change this opinion regardless of changes in the pupil's work. Perhaps there is some justification for this criticism, although in the high school, where relations between pupils and teachers are rather personal and where standardized objective tests are given frequently, such a situation is less likely to exist than in higher institutions, where the lecture system is used. It should be noted that in the case of both boys and girls more marks were raised one letter than were lowered one letter, this fact again suggesting that a low mark may be more stimulating than a high mark. Boys showed a greater tendency to raise their marks one letter than did girls. On the other hand, in the case of changes of two and three letters the percentage of lowered marks for both sexes is slightly greater than the percentage of raised marks. No marks changed four letters; that is, no first A's became E's and no first E's became A's. Of the 6,087 marks, 5,907 (97.0 per cent) either remained the same or stayed within one letter of the original mark, 3,055 (96.8 per cent) in the case of the boys and 2,852 (97.3 per cent) in the case of the girls.

Although the data already given indicate the general nature of the changes, they do not show how each letter of the marking system changed. These data are given in Table III, and the five groups of bars at the right of Figure 2 give a graphic representation of the same data. As would be expected from the previous compilations, the outstanding fact again is that a high percentage of marks remained the same in the case of every letter in the marking system. A's showed the strongest tendency to remain the same, D's were next strongest, while E's showed the least stability. It is of interest to note that the failing marks showed a strong tendency to be raised and that the D's tended to be raised more than they tended to be

lowered. C's and B's were lowered more than they were raised. Again it seems that low marks, especially if they suggest failure, tend to stimulate the pupils to do better work, while high marks

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF CHANGES MADE IN EACH INITIAL LETTER MARK

CHANGE	BOYS		GIRLS		ALL PUPILS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
A changed to—						
A.....	152	67.0	221	77.5	373	72.9
B.....	59	26.0	51	17.9	110	21.5
C.....	13	5.7	12	4.2	25	4.9
D.....	3	1.3	1	0.4	4	0.8
E.....	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total.....	227	100.0	285	100.0	512	100.1
B changed to—						
A.....	84	14.7	104	14.4	188	14.5
B.....	332	58.2	451	62.4	783	60.6
C.....	129	22.6	145	20.1	274	21.2
D.....	23	4.0	22	3.0	45	3.5
E.....	2	0.4	1	0.1	3	0.2
Total.....	570	99.9	723	100.0	1,293	100.0
C changed to—						
A.....	8	0.8	2	0.2	10	0.5
B.....	153	15.6	150	15.6	303	15.6
C.....	595	60.8	612	63.3	1,207	62.0
D.....	210	21.5	188	19.4	398	20.5
E.....	13	1.3	15	1.6	28	1.4
Total.....	979	100.0	967	100.1	1,946	100.0
D changed to—						
A.....	1	0.1	0	0.0	1	0.1
B.....	15	1.5	17	2.5	32	1.9
C.....	197	20.2	162	23.6	359	21.6
D.....	657	67.3	433	63.0	1,090	65.5
E.....	106	10.9	75	10.9	181	10.9
Total.....	976	100.0	687	100.0	1,663	100.0
E changed to—						
A.....	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
B.....	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.1
C.....	22	5.4	0	3.3	31	4.6
D.....	176	43.6	108	40.1	284	42.2
E.....	205	50.7	152	56.5	357	53.0
Total.....	404	99.9	260	99.9	673	99.9

tend to have the opposite effect although not in so marked a degree. The girls showed somewhat more stability in all marks except D's than did the boys, and the boys tended to lower their high marks and raise their failing marks more than did the girls.

No attempt was made in this study to take account of individual differences, although every teacher knows that pupils differ in their attitudes toward school marks. However, psychologists have established the principle that people of high ability tend to underrate themselves, while people of low ability tend to overrate themselves, and this study seems to corroborate this principle. Marks of A, more than any other marks, remained the same, suggesting that the pupils of high ability were encouraged by their first marks and kept up the standards of their work. On the other hand, E's showed the most change, suggesting that pupils of low ability did not realize that they were poor pupils until the first marks came out to puncture their egos. When the group is considered as a whole, this study bears out the established principle that most development takes place under some adversity.

From the material of this study the following general conclusions may be reached. (1) In the majority of cases the final marks were the same as the marks at the end of the first six weeks. (2) In cases of change the marks tended to be raised or lowered not more than one letter. (3) In cases in which there were changes in marks, there is some justification for the belief that low marks on the first report card are more conducive to good work during the remainder of the semester than are high marks. (4) No outstanding differences between the sexes are discoverable, although boys showed a slightly greater tendency to change their marks than did girls.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

An interpretation of the present educational situation.—Professor Dewey¹ accepts as his postulate “that we are in the midst of great educational uncertainty, one probably unparalleled at any past time” (p. 1).

Schools, colleges, and universities are caught in a classification of the content of instruction by subjects. In its time, this was natural and perhaps inevitable. Little was known in any field, and it was comparatively easy to standardize the material of the subject-matter courses. Today it is difficult to fall back even upon fundamentals, for what are in reality the fundamentals in many subjects are just what the beginner cannot grasp.

Classification by subjects came to be developed so that “subjects” came to attract as a synonym “studies.” Now “a study” is quite a different thing from *studying*, and studying implies the pursuit not merely of an isolated discipline but of many and varying relationships in other fields. Learning to study is a very different matter from absorbing, even in the best sense, the content of the several subjects which the student or pupil pursues.

If one's attention centers on the curriculum as a series of studies, he is more than likely to end by segregating the liberal from the practical objectives in education. Time was when the two were indeed separable and when the so-called “practical subjects” might be challenged as having any place in the program at all, save as at university level they were included in the form of professional training. Social progress has changed all that. The learned professions have multiplied, and all vocational activity is tending to become, if not professionalized, at least intellectualized. It follows that the distinction between the liberal and the practical has become well-nigh obliterated.

A leisure-class economy implied a “liberal” conception of instruction, as the term has come to be associated with educational content. The world has moved away from a leisure-class economy and has become a work-a-day sort of place in which all are deeply concerned with finding a place and earning a living, and the problem of doing so is indefeasibly intellectual in character. It follows that the school is culturally concerned with all of life, and not merely with the pursuits which adorn prosperity and furnish a refuge and a solace in adversity.

¹ John Dewey, *The Way Out of Educational Confusion*. The Inglis Lecture, 1931. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1931. Pp. 42.

The author, while deprecating the notion that any method of teaching can be offered as the solution of a problem which presumes the development of a fundamental theory of education, thinks that the project method gives most promise of being the way out.

It would be hard to state the situation in which the world finds itself, with respect to the instruction of childhood and youth, with greater clarity and penetration than the Inglis Lecture of this year has done. The reviewer finds it hard to believe that the issue as stated will fail to find ready acceptance among those whose views range from traditionalism to radicalism—provided they think at all.

It is not likely that there can be any such agreement as to the way out which is proposed, unless all can be persuaded to believe that process is more important than product, that activity is more important than what comes out of activity.

HENRY C. MORRISON

A summary and appraisal of studies in the teaching of modern foreign languages.—Since the publication of the investigations of the Modern Foreign Language Study there has been a marked revival of interest in the methodology of this particular field. Specialists in education as well as foreign-language teachers are devoting themselves to the task of correlating and interpreting the vast amount of data secured by the study during its three years of research. A recent publication,¹ by a man who is both a professor of education and an experienced teacher of modern foreign languages, gathers together in one well-organized volume all the significant investigations in the special field of modern foreign language teaching and evaluates, correlates, and interprets them for the use of teachers, supervisors, and administrators. The author has not been content merely to collect and review the literature in the field of language-teaching, but, using scientific investigation as a basis wherever possible, he discusses fully all the problems related to classroom teaching of the modern foreign languages.

The book is divided into fifteen chapters, which cover completely the various aspects of modern foreign language teaching: history and present status, objectives, methods of teaching, content of the courses, placement in the curriculum, measurement of instruction, prognosis, supervision and organization of classes, and training of teachers. Each chapter is unusually complete, presenting the significant studies in the particular field, current practices and best opinion, and unbiased discussion and recommendation by the author. A list of problems for study and discussion and an annotated bibliography at the end of each chapter make the book an ideal textbook for special-methods courses. In the chapters on methods the author has included model lessons, outlines of subject matter, and exhaustive lists of devices for the benefit of the classroom teacher. Three valuable appendixes are given at the end of the book: a list of the publications of the Modern Foreign Language Study, a bibliography of books and articles

¹ Robert D. Cole, *Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1931. Pp. xxiv+598. \$3.00.

dealing with the various phases of the teaching of modern foreign languages, and a scale for the rating of standardized tests. Indeed, the author has omitted nothing which might prove helpful to teachers and supervisors.

The author, a specialist in education as well as a language expert, never loses sight of the general aims of all education in his discussion of the special field, and this fact makes the book particularly desirable for use in special-methods courses. Few textbooks in the special fields are characterized by the critical and impartial attitude and the absence of philosophizing that are found in this publication. The book is also unique in that it combines a complete summary and review of the studies in the field with an extensive discussion of classroom procedures. The author has been careful to recommend only those methods and materials which experimentation has shown will lead to the attainment of the generally accepted objectives formulated by the Modern Foreign Language Study. The entire book is practical rather than theoretical, and teachers will be grateful for the lists of classroom devices, model lessons, sample tests, courses of study, and annotated bibliographies which accompany the discussion of the different problems of foreign-language-teaching. A few typographical errors, generally in the foreign-language quotations, are noted, but in no case do they obscure the author's meaning. No foreign-language teacher, in high school or university, should fail to add this extremely valuable book to his professional library.

MYRTLE V. SUNDEEN

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

The administration of small schools.—A book¹ which has appeared recently is devoted to the problems peculiar to the administration of schools having small enrolments. It is thought by many that the literature dealing with school administration neglects the problems of the small schools and treats almost entirely schools in large cities. It is thought, furthermore, that the administrative problems of small schools are significantly different from the administrative problems of large schools and that special attention and study should be given the former. The author of the volume under review expresses these ideas. He states that the need for special consideration of the administration of small schools is further emphasized (1) because the number of small schools to be administered is much larger than the number of large schools and (2) because practically all administrators enter on their duties for the first time in small schools. The book, therefore, has been addressed very appropriately to "those who are grappling with, or preparing to grapple with, the knotty problems of administration and supervision in our great army of smaller schools" (pp. vii-viii).

Four groups of problems are treated by the author. Chapters i to vii deal with the general and business problems of administration, the specific topics discussed being finances, buildings and equipment, office management, and the re-

¹ R. V. Hunkins, *The Superintendent at Work in Smaller Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1931. Pp. xii+402. \$2.00.

lation of the administrator to the board of education. Chapters viii, ix, and x deal with the relation of the school and the administrator to the community. Chapters xi to xvi are concerned with instructional problems—the curriculum, supervision, methods of teaching, grading, and promotion being the specific topics discussed. Chapters xvii and xviii deal with the professional growth, attitudes, and hopes of the administrator in the small schools.

The book is unique in that it is almost entirely a description of the personal experiences of the author. Very few references are made to the accounts of other school men and practically none to the scientific study of administration, supervision, and instruction. The book is limited, therefore, in its application and is of value only in so far as the personal experiences of one school administrator are valuable and helpful to others in solving their problems.

One might be led to question the author's numerous emphatic statements to the effect that educational literature contains little which is applicable to the solution of administrative problems in the small schools. Some of the professional journals are ranked very high by other school men on the ground that they do contain many valuable accounts of devices, plans, and methods for meeting administrative problems in smaller schools.

The book is an interesting account of the personal experiences of a successful administrator and contains a large number of devices, plans, methods, and suggestions that have proved effective in administering small schools. The chapters dealing with the relation of the administrator to the community, for example, are outstanding and should prove of great help to the young superintendent. Furthermore, the chapters on the professional growth and advancement of administrators are especially wholesome and encouraging and should be of value to both the new and the experienced administrator.

G. E. VAN DYKE

A study of secondary-school principals in Pennsylvania.—The data on which the study under review¹ was based were collected by the State Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania in 1928 as a part of a general survey of the personnel of the public-school system of the state. Reports were secured and tabulated for 1,071 principals from 1,188 secondary schools. One thousand and eighteen of the principals were men, and fifty-three were women.

The men principals ranged in age from twenty to sixty-eight, the median being thirty-five. The range for the women principals was from twenty-seven years to sixty-nine years, and the median age was forty-three. The median age at which the men were first made principals was twenty-nine, while for the women the median age was thirty-nine. Thirty-eight per cent of the principals received their appointments to principalships by promotion from teaching positions in the school systems in which they were employed after a median term of service of 2.75 years. The experience in teaching for the group at the time of

¹ James Franklin Carter, *The Status of the High School Principal in the State of Pennsylvania*. Philadelphia: Westbrook Publishing Co., 1931. Pp. 116.

promotion to the principalship was six years, while the range was from one year to forty years. The departments from which the promotions were most frequently made were science and mathematics.

The total teaching experience of all the principals ranged from one year to fifty years; the median was 11.5 years. The total experience in the principalship ranged from one year to thirty-six years, with a median of 4.6 years. The range of experience in principalships in Pennsylvania, however, was from one year to forty-eight years, with a median of 9.5 years.

Four hundred and eighty-two, or 44.8 per cent, of the principals of the state were normal-school graduates, 437 having been trained in the normal schools of Pennsylvania. Eight hundred and forty-two of the principals held the Bachelor's degree, 640 being from colleges in Pennsylvania and 202 from colleges outside of Pennsylvania. Two hundred and twelve, or 19.7 per cent, possessed the Master's degree, and 12, or 1.1 per cent, the Doctor's degree. The average years of training beyond the secondary school for the entire group of principals was 3.9 years.

The study revealed the fact that the principals of Pennsylvania were serving under ten different types of teaching certificates, no administrative certificates being required. An optional certificate for principals, however, is offered, and this has already been granted to over five hundred principals and teachers with two or more years of experience who are graduates of colleges and have twelve semester hours of approved course work in secondary-school organization and administration. The findings showed that 202 principals were holding their positions in 1928 on normal-school teaching certificates only—a condition characterized by the author of the study as very unsatisfactory.

The tenure of the principals in their present positions ranged from one year to thirty-two years, the median being 3.2 years. The annual turnover in principalships over the period 1924-29 averaged 11.2 per cent. The salaries of the principals ranged from \$1,200 to \$6,000, the median being \$2,362. The trend in the salaries of the principals for the period 1919-29 showed an increase of approximately \$500. The relation between salary and training was decidedly positive, as was also the relation between salary and age.

The author of the study submits a number of recommendations based on his findings, which are designed to result in the improvement of the status of secondary-school principals in Pennsylvania. The most significant recommendation pertains to the consolidation and reorganization of the small schools, 103 of which had enrolments of fewer than 25 pupils.

W. C. REAVIS

A new textbook in modern history.—Characteristic tendencies in the teaching of history are a widening of the subject to include all matters of human and social import and an approach to history from a world point of view. Both these tendencies are happily apparent in a volume intended for textbook use in

modern-history courses in the senior high school.¹ The author finds five characteristics of modern civilization: (1) scientific knowledge, (2) economic interdependence, (3) humane feeling and democratic ideas, (4) nationalism, and (5) internationalism. His presentation of modern history is designed to trace the rise and present importance of these five characteristics.

Professor Becker's book contains twenty-three chapters arranged in four parts. Part I, "Introduction to Modern History," contains one chapter orienting pupils in the study of history and another chapter summarizing the development of ancient and medieval civilizations. Part II, "The Age of Kings and Nobles," has four chapters on life in Europe during the eighteenth century. Part III, "The Age of Political Revolution," has nine chapters tracing the course of the French Revolution and the succeeding period of reaction and further revolution in Europe. It includes the rise of nationalism and democracy in the nineteenth century. Part IV is entitled "The Age of Industrial Revolution." Its eight chapters include not only those dealing with the purely industrial developments of the nineteenth century but also those concerning imperialism, the World War, and reconstruction. To Parts I and II, dealing with the background of modern times, is allotted less than one-fourth of the book. Parts III and IV divide about equally between themselves three-fourths of the space. Each part has an overview; each chapter has a summary chart, a list of study questions, and a bibliography.

The recognized scholarship of the author is a guarantee of the book's historical accuracy. In literary style the book is thoroughly charming; it has a direct flow and an informal appeal unusual in a textbook. It is to be feared, however, that some high-school pupils will have difficulty with the very vocabulary and construction which enhance the charm of the book for older or abler readers. In organization the book follows the psychological principle of presenting related materials together, but its units are rather large. It is unfortunate that Parts III and IV, each over three hundred pages long, could not have been broken into units larger than the chapters but smaller than the parts themselves. These most important sections of the book are so long that the pupil may lose sight of the relations among their chapters and thereby fail to recognize to its full extent the significance of the book's organization.

These criticisms, however, are typical of most textbooks, and this particular volume is not to be condemned because of them. On the contrary, it has merits which warrant its careful examination and extensive use by teachers of history. This book interprets the past and makes it meaningful, rather than merely describing it. As has already been suggested, a great deal of social, scientific, and cultural data too frequently omitted from textbooks are included in this volume, which consistently maintains a world point of view. The illustrations are among the best to be found in such a volume. The pictures are extremely well chosen,

¹ Carl L. Becker, *Modern History: The Rise of a Democratic, Scientific, and Industrialized Civilization*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1931. Pp. xiv + 826 + xxiv. \$2.24.

and the charts and diagrams are numerous and are well constructed. Their value as visual aids to learning cannot be overemphasized. The bibliographies at the ends of the chapters are, for the most part, well adapted to the level of high-school pupils. Both the Table of Contents and the Index are unusually detailed.

The book, then, is a significant attempt to combine the best fruits of contemporary historical research and of contemporary educational theory. That it cannot succeed wholly is to be expected. That it succeeds as well as, or better than, other textbooks in the field must be recognized. Teachers of modern history will find the volume both interesting and useful.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

HOWARD E. WILSON

A comprehensive treatment of extra-curriculum activities.—No topic in secondary education has stimulated more writing in recent years than the subject of extra-curriculum activities. The contributions as a rule have tended to be specific, dealing with programs of individual schools, individual activities, or specific phases of organization and administration. The author of the book under review¹ presents a comprehensive treatment of this popular topic in secondary education. He undertakes to define a guiding philosophy of extra-curriculum activities and to report the results of pooled experiences in solving some of the actual problems in the organization and administration of such activities in various types of secondary schools.

The book contains an introduction by Ellwood P. Cubberley, the editor of the Riverside Textbooks in Education, a preface by the author, seventeen chapters, and a bibliography. The first chapter sets forth the philosophy of extra-curriculum activities and seven guiding principles, called "signposts" by the author, for organizing and administering programs of activities. These principles are applied in the subsequent chapters as tests of the correctness of the practices reported. The practices discussed pertain to the organization and administration of the home room; class groups; organizations designed to secure the participation of pupils in school government, such as councils in junior and senior high schools; the school assembly; school clubs; the newspaper; the pupil's handbook; the high-school magazine; the annual; commencement exercises; athletics; and the problem of financing activities.

Each type of activity treated in the book is justified by principle and also in terms of current practices when data are available. The author considers criticisms of adverse as well as favorable character, discusses the reasons for the criticisms, and indicates methods of securing positive results. The fact that specific cases are reported and evaluated makes the treatment concrete. The relation of each activity to curriculum fields and to the general purposes of secondary education is considered, the author taking pains to avoid the consideration

¹ Elbert K. Fretwell, *Extra-curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. Pp. xx+552. \$2.75.

of any activity as an end in itself. In brief, each activity is treated as a necessary part of the entire education of the pupil.

The book is vigorous in style and reveals the strong convictions of the author regarding the possibilities of educative experience through extra-curriculum activities. However, the author concedes that the social organization of the school, in and out of regular classrooms, is still in its infancy, and his plans and conclusions are presented without semblance of finality. The volume is easily the best general treatment of extra-curriculum activities available.

W. C. REAVIS

Practical training for future office workers.—Figures released from time to time by the United States Office of Education indicate that high-school commercial departments have, to a great extent, displaced the private "business college" in the training of office clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, and secretaries. Data from both commercial and public-school employment offices indicate, moreover, that the high-school graduates are in most places competing successfully with the business-college products. In view of the frequently deplored absence of a trade atmosphere in public high schools, the relative immaturity of the high-school graduate, and the presence of a relatively large number of incapable and uninterested pupils in the high-school classes, the success of the high-school product is all the more remarkable.

Even more significant, if the facts were known, would be the reasons why, or means whereby, the high schools have been able to accomplish these results in the face of such heavy odds. Have these results been secured because of the superior academic or general education provided in high school, as has been frequently claimed, or merely because the high schools are finally learning how to make their training specifically objective and specialized? This is a moot question which educators and textbook-makers in vocational education might well ponder more deeply.

The authors of a textbook in office practice for high-school pupils¹ have expressed their faith in direct, specialized training by the preparation of a book which is a veritable encyclopedia of office routine, as well as a formidable manual of detailed instructions, directions, and exercises for learning office skills. Following a brief chapter dealing with the relations of the office worker with his employer and fellow-workers, the organization follows the usual logical division of office work: everyday finance; telephoning; mail and correspondence; the writing of letters; telegraph, cable, and wireless service; filing; office machines; reference books; and finally a chapter on "A Typical Experience."

In the hands of a stimulating teacher who will supply the human and imaginative background and will use the textbook only as a sort of syllabus or laboratory manual, this book is probably very usable and even valuable. It is literally

¹ Abbie A. Morrill, Mabel A. Bessey, and John V. Walsh, *Applied Office Practice*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1931. Pp. xii+376. \$1.96.

crammed full of details, all of which no teacher could possibly remember without some such well-organized guide. It also contains hundreds of problems and exercises which should be of great value in the commercial course. As a textbook, however, it may be questioned whether the treatment is not somewhat too condensed, direct, and unimaginative to prove interesting and stimulating to a class of young people. As has been stated, the organization is encyclopedic, the style curt and even choppy. This effect is heightened by the otherwise admirable use of frequent paragraph headings, with letters and numbers arranged in outline form to indicate major and minor divisions. Instructions and directions also are curt, business-like, and to the point: Do this; find that; address So-and-So.

These defects, if they may be called such, perhaps are unavoidable in a textbook imparting office skills. The reviewer, however, misses the broader outlook—the relation of all this routine to the main problems of business. There is a question whether a thorough comprehension of the problems to be solved might not serve the prospective office-worker better than will the amount of exclusively factual and drill material presented in this book. Certain available textbooks in retail-store management, for instance, might be cited as illustrating the other approach.

The first and last chapters, designed to give the pupil a view of the job as a whole, do not adequately remedy the deficiency referred to, and precisely for the same reason—that they picture the work of an office secretary as consisting almost exclusively in routine, system, order, promptness, efficiency, and a mechanically sure and swift performance of a bewilderingly large number of detailed duties. The illustrations, many of which appear to have been inserted merely to relieve the monotony of the text, are rather mediocre, often lacking the clearness of detail which in a book of this kind might be their greatest contribution.

None of the limitations referred to, however, should lead a teacher of this subject to overlook the very great advantages—a wealth of clearly stated and well-organized information and an unusually large amount of exercise and drill material—which together constitute the main contribution of this book.

FREDERICK J. WEERSING

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

A thoroughly usable textbook in chemistry.—Advancement in the field of chemistry has been so rapid that the subject matter of the course has grown beyond the limits of the textbook of the type ordinarily written for the secondary school. Revisions of textbooks by addition merely result in overgrown books containing far too much material for the average high-school course. A new organization with a critical selection of material is necessary to meet the needs of modern civilization. Just such a rewritten textbook has been prepared by Charles E. Dull.¹

¹ Charles E. Dull, *Modern Chemistry*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1931. Pp xii+776.

In this thoroughly modern textbook in high-school chemistry valuable use has been made of the modern theories. The more fundamental of these theories have been introduced in the earlier chapters, and the book has been built around them. The electron theory of the structure of matter and of the formation of chemical compounds has been explained clearly and concisely. The theory of valence is based on the gain or loss of electrons.

The cultural value of the general course in chemistry has not been neglected in the preparation of this book. Chemical theories have been developed in a logical manner with a view to training the pupil to think scientifically. Illustrations have been selected from the field of ordinary experience. The matters of nomenclature and stoichiometry have been handled in a style in keeping with the exactness demanded in teaching a foreign language and the precision required in mathematical reasoning. The chapter dealing with the chemical equation is particularly valuable because of the logical way in which this concept has been developed.

The mechanical organization of the book makes it readily adaptable to the needs of the high-school teacher. At the beginning of each chapter is a short vocabulary briefly defining the new words to be used. At the end of each chapter is a concise summary which is followed by a list of questions of the ordinary type. This list of traditional questions is supplemented by a few comprehensive problems and suggestions for extensive projects. These pedagogical devices do not in any sense incur the textual material or detract from the coherence of the book.

More than enough material to meet the requirements of the college-entrance board has been included. It may be necessary for the teacher to make a critical selection according to local needs. This selection should be easy, as choice can be made between the descriptive chapters without eliminating any of the fundamental principles.

FRED. G. ANIBAL

A textbook for home-economics classes.—Within the past five years there has been a marked improvement in the quality of secondary-school textbooks in the field of home economics, and *Fabrics and Dress*¹ is one of the best that has appeared. The book is planned primarily for the senior high school, and the authors have been peculiarly successful in presenting the material in a way to appeal to the adolescent girl.

Those aspects of clothing which are normally included in a good course of study are discussed: clothing based on design, color, suitability to purpose, textiles, and cost; making clothes for babies, preschool children, and high-school girls; care and repair of clothing; draperies and house furnishings. Little of the subject matter is new; most of it can be found elsewhere in almost, if not quite,

¹ Lucy Rathbone and Elizabeth Tarpley, *Fabrics and Dress*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. Pp. xiv+430. \$1.60.

as satisfactory a form. The real contribution of the book lies in the fact that it has brought together materials from many sources and has presented them well. The questions that are raised are not artificial, as in many books, but are those which high-school girls are asking. The suggested problems at the ends of the chapters, in general, are effective; they do not give the impression that the authors were merely trying to comply with the publisher's requirement for such a section in each chapter. While no teacher would wish to use all the ideas suggested or to limit herself to those offered, most classes will probably find it worth while to carry through many of the suggestions.

Certain topics are handled rather sketchily; it may be that too much content has been included. For instance, the value of the chapter on coats might be questioned because it is doubtful whether these garments should be attempted by secondary-school pupils. Some of the subject matter is open to criticism, for example, many of the statements regarding sleeves in the chapter on dresses. Unless the fabric were very soft, one would have considerable difficulty in easing in two inches of fulness in a sleeve without causing it to appear gathered.

The sequence in which the construction processes are described seems at times to be without rhyme or reason; but, since there is a reasonably good index, this may not be a serious defect. Most of the procedures outlined are based on up-to-date information and common sense rather than tradition. It is a relief to read the directions for laundering garments the colors of which are not fast and to find no mention of soaking them in vinegar or sugar of lead! The illustrations are very good and are varied enough in character to add to the interest of the reader. The book will, undoubtedly, find wide use as a textbook and as a reference book.

CLARA M. BROWN

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

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